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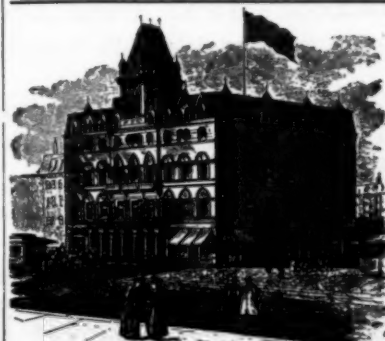
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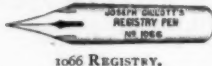
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The Purpose, Scope, and Method of Child Study.

Condensed from a paper by Prof. M. V. O'Shea, University of Wisconsin, read before the New York State Society for Child Study.)

In the evolution of any people there comes a time when they realize that progress is dependent upon the systematic education of childhood, and institutions are established to accomplish this purpose. Education in this sense has been considered to consist in imparting to the youth of any generation such useful knowledge as preceding ages have discovered at a cost of trial and suffering. This conception does not take account of any essential differences between the child and the adult, and the instruction of the latter would proceed substantially the same way as that of the former. The next step in the progress of a people is to realize that the development of an individual comprises something more than mere growth in size; and the adult is more than, and different from, a grown child. There is a consciousness that the mental and physical development of an individual from birth to maturity is in obedience to definite principles of growth, and we may gain acquaintance with these only by concrete, inductive study.

Child-study represents, first and foremost, an effort to apply the inductive method of investigation to the study of child development. It is true that children have always been studied in a way, and that some effort has been made to treat them in a manner conforming to their powers and interests. In the literature of Greece and Rome, there is frequent reference to the training of children, based somewhat upon a comprehension of their needs and capacities. As we come nearer our own day we may point to Froebel, Pestalozzi, and their disciples, in evidence of the fact that children have been studied before the present decade in the development of the race. But all this study has been of an incidental or intuitive kind.

In the study of the development of childhood, it is the purpose to make scientific what has heretofore been only intuitive. It is purposed to marshal all the sciences that relate to human life to aid in the undertaking. It has in view not only to discover how the child develops naturally if left to himself, but what effect various educational agencies have upon that development, either in hastening it toward a desired end, retarding it, or diverting it into wrong channels.

There are those who feel that any attempt to study

childhood scientifically must result in doing violence to the spiritual nature of the one studied, and in stifling the sympathies and affections of the investigator. We dread to have the word scientific applied to anything relating to matters spiritual, as though there were some irreparable conflict between the truth which science gives and that which resides in the human soul. In so far as child development, physical or spiritual, is not dependent upon laws, it cannot be determined by scientific study; but to the degree that it is thus dependent it is most important that we know what these laws are. There need be no fear that an earnest attempt to discover how the child develops and how various agencies influence him will have any other effect than to make our dealing with him more rational, and so more beneficial.

It was at one time believed that every child could be made like every other child in intellect and temperament, by proper instruction and discipline. But an era of more rational things in education is being ushered in, and it is being appreciated that when a child is dull or vicious or exceptional in any way, there are definite causes which must be removed or modified that his nature may be changed. We have then, a need for the study of individual children to ascertain their peculiar needs and capacities as an essential condition for their proper instruction and training; and this is perhaps the most important field of child-study.

To analyze the true nature of a child and so determine how he should be dealt with wisely, demands the most consummate skill. In our day every individual is deemed worthy of the most careful attention. All the influences at our command must contribute to his highest development. Unlike the farmer who cares little for any particular stalk in his corn field, the parent or teacher cares everything for every plant in her child garden. How essential, then, that those of us who train children should be able to determine to the greatest degree possible what their individual needs are!

The term child-study has not been in all respects a happy one to designate this movement, since it has been interpreted to relate principally or wholly to the period of early childhood. This is the more remarkable since it is being generally recognized now that the high school and early college period constitute the most vital years in a child's life. While perhaps not much of value to teachers has yet been established by science respecting the period of adolescence, still it is at least certain that it is a time of rapid development, fluctuation, and uncertainty. This is probably the period where there is the least adaptation of instruction to the real needs and capacities of those being taught. Secondary and higher education seems to have responded very slowly to the effort to determine and conduct studies and discipline according to the needs of pupils. Rather the chief energy of the teachers of these pupils has been given to developing scientifically, subjects of instruction; and scholasticism has been and still is exalted above everything else. There seems always to be the danger that teachers will give more heed to developing the subjects they are teaching than to adapting them to the children taught; and while in elementary education this has been somewhat mitigated, it appears to con-

tinue unmodified for the most part in ascending the scale of grades in our educational system.

It is not alone the teachers of older children who have thought that child-study did not concern them, but parents have held a similar opinion. It is a significant fact that the membership of mothers' clubs rarely includes those whose children have reached the high school. Here is one of the very richest fields for investigation, but the one in which there are the fewest investigators. There is no phase of school work in which there is such necessity for the study of *individual* pupils as in the high school and college. It is an encouraging sign of the times that some high schools now make a careful, sympathetic study of each pupil when he enters the school and at stated intervals thereafter. It would be a blessing to thousands of students if the spirit out of which such work springs should find lodgment in high schools and colleges all over the country.

In the elaboration of any science one of the most serious problems is to devise practical and reliable methods of investigation. Scientific method always demands two things: first, an abundance of data; second, the data must have been accurately obtained. In the sphere of child-study these conditions are particularly hard to realize on account of the nature of the materials dealt with. The problem is such an intricate one that people have despaired of ever solving it in the psychological laboratory. The child-study movement has been derided more for the methods of study pursued by some investigators than for any other reason. It is doubtless true that some of the methods exploited are valueless or possibly harmful, but no danger need be feared from these. Nature always produces prolifically; then in the struggle for existence only the most worthy survive. So in child-study; many things will spring forth that are unfit, but their life will be ephemeral in the struggle that is always on to find the best in every concern of life.

It may be well to mention some of the methods which have already given us reliable data. There is first the biographical method employed by Preyer, Perez, Miss Shinn, and others, wherein the development of a child is observed for a considerable period of time, and the principal facts of his growth noted. The studies made thus far by this method relate mainly to very young children. Then there is the method employed recently by Dr. G. Stanley Hall in his syllabi covering various phenomena of childhood, as anger, fear, etc. Third, there is the syllabus method which gives a number of questions calling for tests upon children, the questions to be answered by teachers; fourth, the studies upon growth by weighings and measurements of the whole and different parts of the body; fifth, the truly scientific method with delicate apparatus in the laboratory. Finally, we have the study of the development of the brain, showing what effect different educational processes have upon cerebral growth and modification.

As there are methods for the scientific side of child-study, so there are methods for the practical side. Tests may be made upon the senses of individual children to discover if there are any defects which would impair health or interfere with work. Again, there may be simple tests to discover the general brain condition of each pupil. Then there may be studies upon the contents of the pupil's mind when he enters school, upon his home life, and the leading characteristics of those who influence him; studies upon his past and present physical conditions—all of which influence his tendencies and activities in the class-room. One of the profitable kinds of individual child-study for teachers may be made upon each pupil's success in the various subjects of school instruction. It will make the teacher's work more effective if she be able to study the pupil in regard to the different studies, determining what is demanded in each individual case.

Education in Foreign Lands.

A Country School in Argentina.

By Amalia Solano.

About twelve years ago, I happened to find myself buried for the summer in a little village, situated in the heart of the Cordoba sierras, in Argentine Republic. The place had nothing to recommend it except its exquisite natural beauty. As for the comforts invented by civilization, there were none. The village had about six or seven hundred inhabitants; of this number, perhaps fifty were white. These did all the trading, owned the land and horses, kept the stores, and governed, or, rather, misgoverned the rest of the population, who were descendants of the Indian tribes subdued by the Spaniards. These Chimos, as they are called in Argentine Republic, had no more to say about the affairs of the village than if they had lived in Timbuctoo. They were the servants, at the beck and call of their masters, and, like the generality of their class all over the country, were exceedingly filthy, intensely ignorant, incorrigibly lazy, but submissive and good natured.

The village—I will call it Barataria, in honor of the great Sancho Panza, and because that is not its name—had two streets intersecting each other at right angles, and forming four corners. Here was the hub of the place, and all the dead activity and commerce of Barataria moved around it. The best houses, whose blank walls stood flush with the so-called sidewalks, were of sun-baked bricks; that is, adobe, and with two or three exceptions, straw-thatched. Above the village rose the tall, whitewashed church spire, which held a shrill, cracked bell. Every Sunday, this bell summoned the people to church.

All day the village lay basking lazily in the sunshine. There was absolutely nothing to do. Not even an echo of the movements of the great world ever reached Barataria, and if it had, it would have made no difference. The Baratarians would not have understood it. On the first day I was at Barataria, I learned there were two factions: one led by the chief executive of the village, the other, by the curate. On the second day, I heard that Barataria was highly advanced; it had a school for boys and another for girls. I was immediately interested, and during my stay in the sierras, I spent many hours sitting by the side of the old woman who was the teacher, and helping her to hear the lessons of the children, although I was then only a school girl myself; but greatly respected, because I came from the capital.

The school-room was the front room in the house of Dona Teresa, the teacher. A door opened into the street, and another into the interior court, or patio of the house. Two or three years before, a misguided man thought that two general stores could thrive in Barataria. The cockroaches and the ants, red and black, that held possession of the place, amicably dividing it with the mice, must have been greatly benefited by the stock of the grocer. The man gave it up, leaving his shelves and counter in payment of rent due. These were the fittings of the school-room. I forget a tattered chart, never used, with A, B, C, etc., which hung from one of the walls. The government paid Dona Teresa the equivalent of ten dollars in American money, monthly; that is, the stipend was supposed to be paid monthly, on the condition that she would teach all that she knew to the girls of Barataria. This she did nobly, every day, except Sundays and church holidays, from nine in the morning until about half past twelve.

Dona Teresa knew, forward and backward, the catechism and the prayers of the church. These she was most severe in teaching. She was a splendid needlewoman, and was proud of her girls' progress in that line. She could also read indifferently well, and write very badly; she certainly tried to teach these two branches of knowledge the best she knew how, and angels can do no more. It was certainly most edifying to see Dona Teresa begin in the morning. She opened with prayers. All went down on their knees; the few white girls, clustered on either side of the teacher, the little half breeds, and Indians in two lines, farther down the room. Then she began:

"In the name of the Father, and of the Son, and of the Holy

Ghost: Benita!" to a little half breed, who, instead of respectfully crossing her arms over her bosom, was twiddling her fingers. "Are you playing, or at prayers? Cross your arms instantly, and if I see you playing again, I'll have you make a cross on the floor with your tongue, to teach you to respect the Lord." The floor was of great, clumsy bricks. Then she went on: "Our Father which art in heaven,—what! talking during prayers? You, Petrona, come right into the middle of the room alone, and kneel there, with your arms extended in the shape of a cross, during the Lord's Prayer and the Credo." The prayers went on in this way until the last Amen, when the girls got their little chairs, or stools, to sit near the teacher for their hour of sewing. The seats had been brought from home by those pupils, who preferred sitting on a chair, to simply squatting on the bare floor, the position adopted by most of the pupils who were not white. In fact, squatting on the ground appears to be a very comfortable position to "lesser breeds," as Rudyard Kipling puts it; for it is well known that the less civilized races have no use for such superfluities as chairs, sofas, and other encumbrances of European life.

When the time for the writing lesson came, the girls stood up on the counter and copied the engraved line of words on top of the page of their copy-books. Each girl furnished her own book, ink, and pen, but with the generosity of children, they borrowed from, and lent each other freely their utensils. Their reading book was the *Cartilla* (little chart), which I have no doubt is a later edition of the first primer printed immediately after the invention of the printing press. It filled all the requirements, as Dona Teresa told me, for it contained the alphabet, the spelling syllables, Ba, Be, Bi, Bo, Bu, and so on with the rest of the consonants and vowels, then whole words, and when the child could read these, there was the "Lord's Prayer" for a reading exercise. The most advanced pupils first read, and then learned by heart, a page of a short Sacred History, translated from the French of Fleury. It is my opinion that this Fleury was he who had been the tutor of the French Dauphin during the last century; certainly anything more modern was out of the question, and the book served Dona Teresa's purpose just as well as if it had been written that very year. When a girl had learned the catechism, and had gone through Fleury, her education was complete. The white girls were usually sent to a Cordoba convent school, and in a few years the half-breeds forgot how to write their names and the little reading they knew.

As for the boys, they fared a little better, as is always the case with those of the masculine gender. They had benches in their school-room, and were taught the four rules of arithmetic, learned by heart a booklet on grammar, and another on geography; but, as Dona Teresa said, they were boys; and for a girl, all that was necessary to know was sewing, praying, and reading, since her principal duty in life was to be a good mother, no modern frills being needed for that.

Perhaps she was right; who knows? There are so many theories, and so many new things about education, that it is very difficult to know which is the right one, and I am sure there are many a great deal more absurd than the one advanced by Dona Teresa, who was herself a very good woman. It is certain, at least, that in Barataria there were no discontented, restless women. The white women settled down to live their narrow, plain, simple lives, not very different from the Patriarchal times, and the Chimos were happy in their one-room mud huts.

I imagine that there are very few, if any, schools like the one described, at the present time in the Argentine Republic. The fever of education has reached the country, and things have changed greatly in the last ten years. Still, civilization reaches very slowly some of the far inland districts, and it may be yet that Dona Teresa's school is still in existence. If so, it will be of interest to those American teachers, who are worrying themselves into an early grave through their endeavor to find the key to solve pedagogical problems, it will be interesting for them to know that, in a corner of the world lives a teacher who goes calmly on her way, absolutely unmolested by theories or problems of any kind, and who has the firm conviction that she is as good a teacher, and better, perhaps, than others full of new notions.

Swedish Student Life—Upsala University.

Far away, in a town seventy miles from Sweden's capital, the students of Upsala university, 2,000 strong, pass their days in an easy abandon, that contrasts strongly with the hurrying courses and constant rush of an American college. At Upsala, there are no campus, no classes, no dormitories. The college spirit of our own land scarcely exists. The students live with the townsfolk, and are their chief source of income. The distinctions in age are very loosely drawn, thus contrasting sharply with English universities. The entering student has the same rights and privileges as the dignified "doctor." The theologian, medical student, jurist, and philosopher mingle freely with only so much fraternizing as comes from similarity of age and pursuits. But among the different departments, or "faculties," there are organizations between which the lines are more or less sharply drawn. These are called "nations" and "coteries."

In 1100, A. D., before Eric IX. introduced Christianity and consolidated the kingdom, Sweden was split up into a number of petty nations, and governed by different rulers. These nations differed from each other, as Caesar said of the Gauls of old, in "language, customs, and laws." Many a bloody battle was fought between them, but time and force finally brought them under one central government. Yet, to this day, many of the old distinctions remain. In Upsala, they manifest themselves by the uniting into "nations" of the students from the districts that constituted each grand division of a thousand years ago. Each nation is under the rule of a "curator," elected by the votes of his people. There are thirteen nations, and so strict is the discipline that every student has to enroll himself with a nation, even against his wishes.

These nations are permanent organizations. The "coteries" are not; they spring up like mushrooms, like the "cliques" of American colleges, and like them, are subject to the same petty jealousies, the same insecure foundation, and the same speedy dissolution. They may be stylish, aristocratic, snobbish, learned, exclusive, pious, or what not. They are almost innumerable, and every student belong to several at a time.

The only society of any strength which at all corresponds to our college fraternities is the "Verdandi," which is trying to overthrow the conservative precedents of the university, and infuse into it a spirit of energy and progress.

The life of the students is essentially Bohemian. The public restaurants are numerous, and here the students gather, spending their spare time in drinking and conversation. Athletics is an unknown quantity of Upsala. Horseback riding, swimming, and bicycling are the nearest approach to it. There is a university chorus of about 200 voices, well trained, and well conducted. At all official occasions, festivities, and ceremonies this chorus takes part. Sometimes it goes to foreign lands to sing, and then from all quarters the sons of Upsala who have left their college home gather, to do honor to their university, and swell the volume of its song. Each nation has its own chorus, and in the open air, on summer nights, or in the restaurants, when the weather is unpropitious, the songs are constantly heard—a double quartet at first, then the whole chorus of voices, as the singers come together at the sound of the music.

Education in Egypt.

In the early part of the century, education was carried on in the mosque schools, where the children learned to read and write Arabic, and to repeat the Koran. There are still these mosque schools, and at their head, the Moslem university, in the Mosque of El Azhar, Cairo, where, according to the report of last year, 18,000 Moslems, of all races, and from all parts of the Mohammedan world, gathered to learn the Koran, and to be instructed in their religion; to learn also that the earth is flat and revolves around the sun, because "the Koran says so." As opposed to this relic of the Dark Ages, established in 975, A. D., there are now two important agencies through which knowledge is being diffused in Egypt: government schools and mission schools.

Inspection of the schools has existed, in theory, since 1836; but in fact, since 1870. The ministry of public instruction consists of three members. The nominal head is a native and

a Mohammedan; the second in office is an Armenian, and the real head is an Englishman, Mr. Douglas Dunlop. The schools are divided into primary, secondary, and special schools of law, medicine, agriculture, normal, arts, and handicraft. Before entering the primary school, pupils must be able to read and write Arabic, and they learn the rudiments of the language either in the mosque or the mission schools.

In the primary school, the course lasts four years. During the first two years of the course, the Koran is one of the subjects, but it is not found in the course after that. In the second year, either English or French is begun, and continued throughout the course. French had the preference in former years, but latterly, probably as many, if not more, are taking up English. Arithmetic, geography, history, drawing, geometry, and object lessons are also found in the schedule of studies of the primary course. After the four-years course, an examination is given by the ministry of public instruction, and those who pass may be admitted to the secondary schools. There are over fifty primary schools scattered over the country, while there are only three secondary schools, two at Cairo, and one at Alexandria. The secondary course is completed in three years. The studies are Arabic, English, or French, arithmetic, algebra, geometry, geography, history, science, and drawing. Those who complete this course, and who pass the examination given by the ministry of public instruction, are admitted to the special school, or are eligible for government positions. Between 1887 and 1892, three hundred pupils had completed the secondary course, and of these the majority entered the special schools, the largest number choosing the law school. Formerly, law students could study with other lawyers and be admitted to the bar. Now, all natives who wish to be lawyers, must take the course in the law school.

The education of the people has been not quite neglected by the government. Many years ago, a wife of Ismail Pasha established a school for girls in Cairo. Five days in the week were devoted to household duties and the needle, and but two to intellectual culture. In 1891, a national school for the education of nurses was established, with seventy attendants. Within the last two or three years, two schools for girls have been established in Cairo, with an Englishwoman at the head of each.

Much might be written on the mission schools of Egypt. The Catholics have had their schools here for many years, and their Jesuit college, in Alexandria, is largely attended by those whose fathers are in official circles. Even the son of the minister of education attends this school, it is said because he cannot pass the government examinations, and because, many years ago, a law was passed whereby graduates of this school are eligible for government positions. The American mission schools, supported by the United Presbyterian church, have probably accomplished more for education in Egypt than any other agency. They were established in 1834. They now have one hundred and thirty-three schools for boys and thirty-five for girls, and an enrollment last year of over 11,000 pupils. —"State Normal Monthly" (Kansas).

The Education of a Moor.

Very different ideas prevail in Morocco and England, both as to what constitutes education, and as to the subjects and manner of study during its requirement. In fact, no equivalent of the word education is used at all, for its place is taken by "reading," the first and last aim of which is the digestion of ponderous volumes on religion and Koranic jurisprudence. The source and standard, as well as the model, of the language, being the Korán, which, at the outset, has to be committed to memory. This task occupies the first two years, which are spent in little primary schools where the only other subject taught is writing, though many learn to recite the Korán without being able to write, and some acquire great portions without being able to read. The bulk of the people can neither read nor write, so that the profession of scribe is one of the most flourishing, and those who can lay claim to a little learning are regarded with awe by the multitude, who get them to write charms instead of taking physic.

Yet, education of some sort is open to all in Morocco, and, being nearly free, is within the reach of all. To the village school all lads may go, and payment, mostly in kind, is made

according to the parents' means. After that, tuition is free, as the student who has mastered the Korán, and a few rudimentary notions of grammar and syntax, can sit at the feet of any teacher without payment, living on the alms provided by the people who anticipate a blessing from their presence.

Of the quality of the instruction imparted under the head of sciences, very little can be said, since the whole system of Mohammedan teaching is centuries behind time, and to describe it would be to revive the crude ideas of the Middle Ages, common to the civilized world of that day to an extent which enabled the Moors in Spain to rank with the foremost. Of algebra, and alchemy, whose very names we owe to Arabic, the Moors at least know next to nothing. In medicine, their knowledge is remarkably unpractical, although they have some books containing valuable facts on herbal and other treatment, of which the barbers and writers of charms, their only doctors, know nothing. Of history, little is read but a few old records of their own and other Mohammedan countries, long out of date. The same might be said of geography, of which the very rudest notions exist, for the shape of the earth is not yet accepted in Fez, where the little world they know, for the most part that of Islám, centers in Mekkah, and is surrounded by an encircling ocean, the Bahr el Mohait. Arithmetic is one of the sciences which the Moorish student is left pretty much to pick up for himself, though the average shopkeeper, who cannot more than read and write, if he can do as much, is, as a rule, successful in obtaining a workable acquaintance with the principal rules, often from some special teacher. —"Educational Review" (London).

Education in the Jaipur State.

The "Educational Review," published in London, culls some instructive notes from the report on public instruction in the Rajputana state. Jaipur, for last year. Jaipur is a state with an area of 14,465 square miles, and a population of over two and a half millions, chiefly Hindus. It has about 150 miles of railway, and Jaipur city is its only town of importance. But it is progressive in educational matters, and all its schools are absolutely free. It expended last year for education 137,456 rupees. An M. A. class was opened in the Maharajah's college, to enable Jaipur students to prosecute their studies at the capital, free of charge. There are 733 educational institutions in the state, with 24,850 pupils. A most peculiar condition is the disproportion between the number of girls and boys. Of the total number, 24,850, 24,325 were boys, and 525 girls. One girls' school, at Madhapur, was discontinued during the year. The Rajput school, at Jaipur, is a special institution for the education of the sons of Rajput noblemen.

Education in Burma.

The director of public instruction in Burma gives some interesting educational facts in his quinquennial report to the government of India.

Municipal high schools have advanced in a gratifying manner. Primary education has also advanced. In 1892, there were in Burma 4,640 primary schools, with 127,596 pupils. In 1897, the number of schools was 5,192, and of pupils, 143,824. This increase is due, in part, to the fact that the "pongyis," or ecclesiastical instructors, are adopting more modern and conventional methods of teaching. Nearly half the schools in Burma are monastic.

The old pupil-teacher system, with, however, a curtailment of teaching hours and periodic instruction of the teachers by competent persons, still exists. Burma has also a system, introduced in 1894, employing itinerant teachers.

Education of Women in Russia.

In the year 1886 there were, in Russia, four university courses for women, in connection with the four chief universities and a medical academy. Without imposing any burden whatever upon the state's budget, Russia was thus endowed with five higher educational institutions for women; and had they been left freely to develop, we should have had by now

seven or eight women's universities. This was, evidently, too good; and consequently, in 1886, all high courses for women, and the medical academy, as well, were closed with one stroke of the pen by a simple ministerial order. A few students had been implicated in political agitation; they were very few, indeed; but that gave the long-looked-for pretext. The Empress Marie was no more, and the Empress Marie Dagmar, who has her own opinion on women's education, did not interfere with that measure—if she were not, as rumor puts it, its instigator. The Russian women did not bend before that stroke. They began anew the same agitation which they had carried on for more than twenty years, and very soon the government had to recognize, that what Russian women *will* have they will have.

In the meantime, once more, all those who could scrape together thirty or forty shillings a month went abroad. Seeing that new emigration, the government hastened to make new promises and to publish, in 1889, the normal statutes of the future women's universities. This was applied, however, at St. Petersburg only. It must be said that it is a statute with a vengeance. The society for the support of the high courses has to find all the means for the expenses, but it has no voice in the management. The number of admissions was limited to four hundred, and a special paragraph was directed against the Jews, only three per cent of "non-Christian students" being received. The poor provincial students were, *de facto*, excluded, those lady students who had no parents or relatives to stay within the capital being bound to live in a college where they had to pay three hundred roubles a year, in addition to the students' fees, which were raised to one hundred roubles, while they are only sixty roubles in the male universities. With all that, the number of students desirous to gain admittance was so great that the limitation to four hundred had soon to be extended to five hundred, and then to six hundred. This year (1897) there are six hundred and ninety-five students, and yet two hundred and twelve women, who were ready to comply with all the regulations and pass all the examinations, were refused. All the expenses, with the exception of £300, contributed by the state (exactly the wages of the honorary director appointed by the government), are covered by the society, and they now obtain £10,800 a year.

—"Nineteenth Century" (London).

Education in Turkey.

Dr. George H. Hepworth, who has been investigating the Armenian massacres for the New York "Herald," by invitation of the sultan, gives an interesting interview with the secretary general to the ministry of public instruction, concerning the educational system of Turkey. The schools were very imperfect before the advent of the present sultan. But the sultan has founded a school of laws, a civil administration school, in which pupils are taught political economy, and fitted for diplomatic work; a school of fine arts, and a commercial school. The civil schools are open to all; but the military schools are for Mohammedans only. The Greeks, Jews, and Armenians all have schools of their own, besides the schools of the missionaries. At the beginning of the present reign, there were only six military schools in the empire; but now there are 6,000 pupils in Constantinople alone. There are also schools in which the deaf and dumb are taught. In every city and village civic schools are to be found, while every small hamlet has a preacher, who also teaches the children. In Constantinople, and in many of the vilayets, the sultan has founded high schools for girls. Besides these, there is a school for the training of officers for the navy, and a school in which men are trained to become captains of merchant vessels.

Teachers' Salaries in New Zealand.

New Zealand school teaching is not an inviting field of labor from a financial point of view. As a result, the number of men in the work is comparatively small. Last year, out of 1,043 pupil-teachers employed, only 219 were men. Of 385 teachers in several of the districts, 226 received less (many of them very much less) than 100 pounds a year. Of about 2,500 regular teachers in the colony, only sixty-seven get over 300 pounds a year. "The School Guardian" asks how, under such conditions, young men

can be induced to take up the profession. Its answer is applicable to all countries. "Parents must lead their children to regard teaching as a high and honorable calling, and they must treat teachers with such respect as is due to educated men and women holding important and responsible positions. Committees must prevent teachers from being worried by frivolous and vexatious complaints. Boards should allow teachers some discretionary power, and not sap all manly independence by binding them hand and foot with irksome and unnecessary regulations. Salaries must be fair remuneration for the work required to be done."

Corporal Punishment in England.

The London "Schoolmaster" congratulates the Croydon school board that it permits the head masters to delegate the authority to punish to their assistants; but only an "authorized cane" can be used, and only two strokes given. But should there not be some way of determining the force with which those blows should be given? The masters, it seems, can inflict blows without restriction.

Scottish Teachers' Salaries.

There is a dearth of trained teachers in Scotland. The salaries of second masters, in towns of 100,000 and over, range from \$650 to \$1,250; of assistant masters, from \$450 to \$750; of assistant mistress, from \$300 to \$600. In towns of 50,000 and over, the second masters get from \$700 to \$1,000; the assistant mistress, \$300 to \$550. In towns of 15,000 and over, the second masters get from \$650 to \$900; the assistant mistress, from \$300 to \$500. The salaries vary with the size of the school, as well as the size of the town.

Class Subjects in English Schools.

An interesting debate was precipitated in the house of commons by a motion of Sir John Lubbock, to make the provisions in teaching class and special subjects the same in England as in Scotland. He said that the education code provided that the class subjects should be English, geography, elementary science and history, but that a child should study only two of these. He proposed to give the child a chance to study all of them, as in Scotland.

Sir J. Gorst admitted that the Scottish educational system was much better than the English; that more children went to school, and staid at school longer, than in England; and that whereas in England there was one teacher to every seventy-eight children, in Scotland there was one to every sixty-two children. In Scotland, no child was entitled to total exemption from attendance unless it was in the fifth standard, or to partial exemption unless in the third standard. In England the standard of partial exemption was in some places as low as the first standard, and every child was entitled to leave school at the age of thirteen, if it was in the fourth standard. Scotland had allowed a third class subject to be taken up, but had found it too hard on the pupils, so had dropped it. England did not wish to try the experiment.

Sir W. Harcourt said that neither England nor Scotland gave the education that was given on the continent. English children had not competent teachers, were not kept hours enough or years enough at school, and were obliged to pick up much of their education outside of the school-room. The debate had revealed the absolute inefficiency of the whole machinery of the educational system.

The motion was finally withdrawn, but it served to throw some interesting side-lights on the educational system of England.

Value and Need of Infants' Schools.

Mr. C. J. Addiscott recently addressed a conference of teachers of infant schools in London. Among other things he said: "One of the first discoveries we make in our study of the child is that the child of five or six is to an enormous extent, a different being from the same child at the age of from eight to ten. The difference is all that which exists between a minus and a plus amount. It is in the upper division of an infants' school that we discover for the first time, the child of sub-normal or of ultra-normal mental development; of inherited or acquired physical or mental defects, of deficient eye, ear, brain. We are, the

dealing with a critical period, and our treatment here might make all the difference between success or failure in the child's subsequent career.

The training and qualifications of an infant's mistress are special. The difficulties of an infant's school are initial, and therefore, intensified difficulties, and require special qualities of head and heart to overcome them. A teacher in an upper-school can ease overstrain of mind or body by merely superintending work that is being done by the class—with infants, no such relief is possible, the effort is constant.

It is for these reasons we ask the abolition of the young and untrained teacher, the increase of government grants and higher salaries, and the reform of the curriculum.

A Commercial University.

The Leipzig chamber of commerce is about to undertake an interesting educational experiment. It has guaranteed the funds for the establishment and maintenance of a commercial university. There will be a two year's course, which will comprise the study of political economy, finance, wares, technology, commercial geography and history, common law, admiralty law, trade, exchange, colonial politics, workmen's insurance and the like, besides practice in mathematics, bookkeeping, correspondence, chemistry and stenography. Final examinations will be held, and diplomas granted. The university will be governed by a senate of ten or twelve members—one to represent the king and government of Saxony, one for the Leipzig municipality, three from the chamber of commerce, three university professors, some teachers from an existing commercial school, and a director of studies appointed by the senate. The object of the chamber of commerce is to raise the dignity of industrial life by stamping it with the approval of the university.

Helps to Character Study In Shakespeare's Julius Cæsar.

By Stella M. Wylie, High School, Springfield, Mass.

ACT I. SCENE I.

Is the speech of the tribunes overbearing, or is it simply the lawful exercise of authority?

Where does Shakespeare make the Roman tribune speak as if he were living in England during the Middle Ages?

Do the citizens respect the authority of the tribunes?

Are they all afraid of them?

What, in Marcellus' eyes, is the only thing worthy of a triumphal procession?

Who is his political hero?

Notice the climax in his address. Is his speech likely to win the citizens over to him?

Is the imperative ever likely to win people?

Ought a public official to win, or to command?

Does Flavius realize this? What difference in his address?

What does he appeal to in their natures?

Point out in this scene, the contrast between the two tribunes, in their way of approaching the citizens, and the corresponding difference in the response each gets.

Do the citizens realize their fickleness, or is it simply another instance of their fickleness that they are so easily influenced?

Is the tribunes' dislike of Cæsar anything more than a personal dislike?

Is he likely to usurp the duties of their office?

What were their duties and power?

Wherein lies Cæsar's strength and opportunity to increase his power?

ACT I. SCENE II.

Is there any other than a natural and ordinary reason why Cæsar should wish for an heir of his own blood?

Who has the higher office in Rome, Cæsar or Antony?

Answer: Both are consuls.

Which seems to have the more natural authority?

The break in the meter of line 18 may indicate what? Answer: "Brutus' mild philosophic contempt."

What had happened to cool the ardent friendship between Cassius and Brutus? Answer: Both had recently run for the chief prætorship, and Brutus, through Cæsar's favor, had won. Cassius was elected one of the common prætors, or judges.

What are the conflicting passions that are vexing Brutus? Answer: Love to Cæsar, personally; enmity against his increasing power in the state.

Are conflicting passions likely to make one unmindful of one's treatment of persons around?

Is Cassius satisfied with the explanation? "Immortal Cæsar"; said in what tone?

Is there any trace of jealousy in Cassius' disposition?

Line 118: Does Cassius, in his earnestness, somewhat force the metaphor?

Is the physically strong often unable to appreciate the intellectual giant?

What idea do you get of Cassius' physique?

How does this accord with Cæsar's description of him?

See line 190. (He is, however, wiry and of strong vitality.)

How does Cassius work upon Brutus' pride?

Is it personal pride or patriotic pride that he arouses?

Is there any indication as to whether Brutus or Cassius is the more influential man?

What idea do you get of Casca from the brief mention of him here?

Notice Shakespeare's masterly way of indicating that something unusual has happened.

Which are the more likely to be good natured, fat or lean people?

What is Shakespeare's opinion of people who cannot appreciate music? See Merchant of Venice, Act V., Scene I.

What idea of Cæsar have you gained from the text so far?

Are the fears of Brutus and Cassius—that he will take more power to himself than he ought—well founded?

Does Cæsar really want the crown?

Why does he not take it?

Might he, by repeatedly refusing it, win the people over finally to consent to have him crowned?

Does Casca relate any foolish act on the part of Cæsar?

How does Cæsar's excuse for it affect the people?

Where does Shakespeare make Casca talk like an Englishman?

How is this description of Cicero especially characteristic? See Merivale's "History of Rome," or the notes to Hudson's edition of "Julius Cæsar."

Who is the real conspirator, Brutus, Cassius, or Casca?

Line 305: He means Brutus or Cassius, which?

Taking what you have read of the play as a basis, what are the contrasting characteristics of Brutus and Cassius?

What do these two scenes, as a whole, serve to show?

ACT I. SCENE III.

What element of weakness is here revealed in Casca?

Is his superstition shared by the common people?

Is Cicero superstitious?

Does Cicero believe in the immortal gods? Look up these last two points in Froude's essay on Cicero.

Can you explain the prodigies mentioned?

Is there anything of the coward in Cassius?

How does Cassius turn the disturbance of the elements to advantage?

How does his manner of winning over Casca compare with his manner of approaching Brutus on the subject of the conspiracy?

"We are governed with our mother's spirits;

Our yoke and sufferance show us womanish."

Is this a complimentary to women?

Are the provinces of manhood and womanhood identical in Shakespeare's mind?

Why does Cassius choose Brutus to head the conspiracy instead of Casca?

Is there any craftiness in setting Casca an example to follow?

"The Romans are but sheep;—Roman hinds—weak straws." Is this a true estimate of the Roman people at that time?

Look up in books of history.

Does Casca swallow the bait?

Is Cassius a good hater?

In what way does Cassius touch Casca's sense of honor, and win in him a feeling of loyalty toward the conspiracy?
Does Cassius understand human nature? Wire-pulling?
What special significance in the place of meeting?
What evidence of nervousness in Casca?
Why does not Cinna immediately answer Cassius' question?
What is the popular opinion of Brutus?

ACT II. SCENE I.

Has Brutus been asleep?
Of whom has he been thinking?
Has Brutus any fault to find with Caesar's life or disposition thus far?
Does Shakespeare conform to facts of history here?
Is Brutus' conclusion logical?
Which is the keener in reasoning, Brutus or Cassius?
Look up in Plutarch's "Lives" the accounts of such "investigations." Do these messages come from the people of Rome?

How deeply has the idea of the conspiracy against Caesar possessed Brutus?

Why does he shrink from it?
Why does he join the conspirators?
What slip does Shakespeare make in his description of the appearance of the conspirators?

Should we expect to find Decius Brutus among the conspirators against Caesar? For answer, look up his history, or the note in Hudson's edition, p. 40:

How, when such projects are on foot, would you account for the triviality of the side talk on the part of Decius, Casca, and Cinna?

Is Brutus' sentiment, in regard to binding himself by an oath, a noble one?

Is there any hint of the mercenary in Metellus' speech?
What is Brutus' estimate of Cicero?

Would Brutus follow anything that Cicero had begun?
Does Decius easily jump to extremes?

Is Brutus sincere in his idea that it is his duty to help assassinate Caesar?

Is duty to state the sole motive of the other conspirators?

Is it like human nature for men who are not superstitious in belief, to be superstitious in practice; i. e., to observe carefully all means of warding off ill luck? Do you yourself?

What is Caesar's weakness?
Are great men likely to have little weaknesses?

Would Caius Ligarius' motive for joining the conspiracy be one of hatred or justice?

Is this consistent with the sentiment of Brutus' speech—163-183?

Does the meter give any evidence of Portia's disturbed mind?

Is it childish curiosity or wifely interest that makes her demand a knowledge of her husband's secrets?

Is she a woman worthy of her ancestry and of Brutus?

What adjectives characterize her?
Is Brutus open to persuasion?

Does Ligarius surmise what the exploit is to be?

ACT II. SCENE II.

Do you admire or disapprove of Caesar's attitude toward threatening circumstances?

Is it to please Calpurnia, or because he is somewhat touched by fear, that Caesar consents to stay at home?

Is there anything of the autocrat and dictator in Caesar's response to Decius?

What characteristic of Decius is shown in his interpretation of the dream?

Is Caesar truly kingly in his bearing toward his friends and attendants?

How does Caesar's sincere courtesy and friendship affect Brutus?

ACT II. SCENE III.

What does this scene serve to bring out?

ACT II. SCENE IV.

What is Portia's state of mind?
How does it happen that she so quickly interprets the meaning of the soothsayer's reply?

What is the soothsayer's name?
Has Brutus kept his promise to Portia?
What is her object in telling a falsehood?
Might a sharp-witted spy have guessed her secret?

ACT III. SCENE I.

Why are the conspirators so startled at Popilius' greeting?
Have their fears any foundation?

Had their plot been made known, would the majority of people have sided with him?

Had this handful of people any right to act for the nation at large?

Who ought, instead of Casca, to have been appointed to aim the first blow at Caesar?

Does Caesar detect and insincerity in the bearing and address of the senators?

Does this last view of Caesar show anything of arrogance in him? Is there any historical authority for it?

Why does not Cassius lead this company of the "boldest and best hearts of Rome"?

Are Brutus and Caesar well characterized by Mark Antony?

Is there anything suspicious in Mark Antony's abject humiliation?

Is Brutus lacking in shrewdness? What evidences of it throughout the play thus far?

If you were to see and hear Antony, do you think you could interpret him as easily as from the printed text?

How does Cassius read Antony?

How is Mark Antony's address calculated to make the assassins feel?

"Your voice shall be as strong as any man's"

In the disposing of new dignities."

Is this the right tactic?
Point out the artfulness of Antony's treatment of Caesar's assassins.

What is your opinion of Antony?
What idea of his character had you gained previous to this?

Does he feel real grief at Caesar's death?

ACT III. SCENE II.

(A study of the Roman mob and ways of addressing it.)

What is it that the citizens demand?
Are they powerful enough to obtain that demand by force?

To what subterfuge must Brutus and Antony have recourse in order to lead them?

Which addresses them first and foremost as patriots?
Are the citizens, first and foremost, Romans in the old noble sense of the word?

Which address is the most flattering and winning, "Romans, Countrymen, and Lovers," or "Friends, Romans, Countrymen"?

Which address shows the greater art? In what respects?

Is Brutus' speech brief or "long drawn out"?

Should it have been developed further to make a lasting impression on the people? Are they what you would call an intelligent audience?

Are the citizens moved by the patriotic speech?

Where do they show that they have utterly failed to grasp the true inwardness of Brutus' motive for killing Caesar?

"For Brutus' sake, I am beholding to you." What are here?

What is the keynote to Antony's address, patriotism, or personal emotion and sympathy?

If Antony means to incite the people to revenge, why does he not do it at once?

Notice how each citizen goes a little further in his conclusion or statement than the one who has previously spoken.

Is this characteristic of the reasoning of a mob?

"Tis certain he was not ambitious." Does the citizen jump at a conclusion?

Why does Antony mention Caesar's will, if he does not mean to read it?

Why does he not read it at once when they demand it?
Lines 155, 162, 165, 166: What is the attitude of the people at this point? Compare these lines with lines 66 and 67.

Who was the greatest Roman military general?
What was his most noted military exploit?

What is the most telling stroke in Antony's speech?
As a matter of fact, did Caesar have on the military or civic robe?

Why does Antony hold back the citizens, when they would rush away for revenge?

Is Antony's estimate of himself truthful?

Can the mass of people usually be stirred by "what they themselves do know" from the mouth of a wily speaker, who knows how to arrange his facts?

Why is it that educated people are not so easily stirred?

Is this Roman mob a type of mobs in general?

Is every crowd a mob?

Sum up the characteristics of mobs in a few words.

ACT IV. SCENE I.

What are these men met together for?

Are their purposes selfish or patriotic?

Has greed and love of power swallowed up any other kind of love?

Which one of these three men is the leader?

Is it his intent to work for the good of all three, or solely for himself?

Who is the weakest member of the triumvirate?

Do we get a new view of Antony's character in this scene?

ACT IV. SCENE II.

Why is Brutus so suspicious of Cassius?

Are men in desperate circumstances likely to play each other false?

Which is the more careful of appearances, Brutus or Cassius?

ACT IV. SCENE III.

What speech of Cassius' gives the keynote to his line of conduct during these stirring times?

Why is Brutus displeased with Cassius?

By what means had Cassius raised money?

Why did not Brutus raise money by the same means?

Would it be any worse for Brutus to take from Cassius, money raised by such means, than to raise it himself by the same means?

How is the poet received by Cassius and Brutus?

Are outsiders, who meddle with quarrels not their own, likely to be considered as impertinent?

What is Brutus' philosophy? Look up in Plutarch's "Lives."

What excuse does Brutus give for his angry mood?

Does Brutus feel very keenly his loss of Portia?

("Deep grief loves not many words.")

Are Brutus and Cassius better friends than ever after their quarrel and explanations?

Would Brutus be on the offensive or defensive against their enemies?

What bit of philosophy in Brutus' reasoning?

Why is not Brutus drowsy?

What commendable trait does he show?

Is the ghostly appearance subjective or objective? What indicates it?

What effect does the ghostly visitation have upon him?

ACT V. SCENE I.

What length of time is supposed to have elapsed between act II. and this act?

How old are Mark Antony and Octavius at the time of this battle?

Which might expect to have things mostly his own way?

Any evidence here that his coadjutor had a mind of his own?

"Words before blows." Is this caution characteristic of Brutus?

Does Cassius read Antony aright when he attempts to wheedle him into good humor?

"If Cassius might have ruled." To what former conversation does Cassius refer?

A quotation describes Octavius as "calm, cool, and calculating." What evidence of its truth here?

What, in Octavius' speech, does Brutus resent? How?

Does Octavius parry the thrust?

Who first sees that the council of war is likely to degenerate into an undignified quarrel?

Does Cassius have a presentiment of coming evil? Does this sound like the Cassius of Act I., Scene III.? Account for the change.

What is the doctrine of Epicurus in which he has so little confidence now?

What were the circumstances of Cato's death?

Will Brutus' philosophy stand the test of his own adversity?

ACT V. SCENE II.

Who has command of the legions on "the other side"?

This short scene serves what purpose?

ACT V. SCENE III.

Explanation: "Yond troops" are Messala and his escort coming from Brutus. Do Pindarus and Cassius interpret aright what they see?

What might have been the result if Cassius had been more steadfast in resisting his adverse fortune?

Should we have expected this of Cassius at the crisis?

Was he right in estimating one of his characteristics? Act IV., scene III., line 118.

Have we heard of Labeo and Flavius before? Who are they?

ACT V. SCENE IV.

What do you infer are the characteristics of the young Cato?

Is he a "chip of the old block"?

What stratagem occurs to Lucilius as he is taken prisoner? Where is the advantage?

What good trait does Mark Antony show here?

ACT V. SCENE V.

Who is this Statilius? What about him? (See Plutarch.)

Is there anything in this scene to indicate guilty remorse and a presentiment of final retribution?

"I thank thee, Brutus, that thou hast proved Lucilius' saying true." What is the saying referred to?

Is Antony's estimate of Brutus a true one?

QUESTIONS FOR THOUGHT AND DISCUSSION.

Why did Brutus not win?

Where did he allow others to get the advantage over him?

Had Brutus succeeded, would his course have won the world's approval? ("There's nothing succeeds like success.")

Why did not Brutus first appeal to the Romans?

Were the Romans of that time capable of governing themselves?

Was Cæsar worthy to be king?

Was he wrong in wishing that office? Unwise?

Was Brutus wrong in his idea of political freedom for the Roman state?

Was he wrong in his method of acquiring it?

Mention ten episodes in the play of Julius Cæsar taken directly from Plutarch.

ESSAY SUBJECTS IN CONNECTION WITH THE PLAY OF JULIUS CÆSAR.

"Superstition Among the Romans."

"Old Roman Superstitions."

"Who is the Hero of the Play of Julius Cæsar?"

"Has the Play of Julius Cæsar Dramatic Unity?"

"The Roman Mob: A Character Study."

"If Cæsar had not been Assassinated."

"Religion Among the Romans."

"Shakespeare's Anachronisms in Julius Cæsar."

"Why Brutus Failed."

"If Brutus had Succeeded."

"Calpurnia and Portia Compared and Contrasted."

"Brutus: Patriot or Traitor?"

(This list may be made a subject for debate.)

Blue Prints.

In your issue of March 19, I read an article on the making of blue prints. Some may find it cheap and convenient to prepare their own paper as follows:

- | | |
|----------------------------------|---------|
| (a) Citrate of Iron in Ammonium, | ¾ oz. } |
| Water, | 1 oz. } |
| (b) Red Prussiate of Potash, | ¾ oz. } |
| Water, | 1 oz. } |

Keep (a) and (b) in separate bottles until they are to be used; then mix a tablespoonful of each in a cup, and spread this mixture evenly, with a brush, over good paper. (A tooth-brush suits well.) Let the paper get dry in a dark place. The sheets, before exposure, are yellow. After exposure, wash them in water.

Cincinnati.

F. W. D.

The School Journal.

NEW YORK AND CHICAGO.

WEEK ENDING APRIL 23, 1898.

There is a great deal of food for reflection in the following statement of one of our best known superintendents: "On the east side of my city there is a school whose principal assures me that he could not possibly get along without corporal punishment, and all his teachers are of the same opinion. On the west side I have a school where corporal punishment has never been known and the principal and teachers assure me that its introduction would mean the ruin of the school. If I should transfer the principal and teachers of the east side school to the west side, I would be told before the week was out that it was simply impossible to get along without corporal punishment here; while my friends of the west side when transferred to the east side would find that it was just as easy without the rod there as it was in their former school. I have tried an experiment of this kind, and am speaking from practical experience."

It has been ever thus. Take the early history of this country, for instance, and compare the peaceful development of Pennsylvania with the turbulent times in colonies where the Indians were treated as savages and foes. Kindness and humanity have won greater victories than arms, whether the rod or the cannon.

A teacher who has faith in children will always have a good school. Thomas Arnold became famous as a school manager because of his absolute trust in his boys. His methods of teaching were crude, and yet they were successful because of the spirit of the man behind them. Pestalozzi was a failure as an instructor in the school-room. His pupils could not help growing tired of his dry and uninteresting drills, and yet they all loved him and drew inspiration, strength, and manhood from him. It was his faith in childhood that made him the great educator, as we know him best.

Two weeks ago *The School Journal* referred to the opposition to the Ahern bill by members of the New York city board of education. This bill, it will be remembered, purposes to increase the salaries of teachers without examination after stated periods of ser-

vice. It is the justest, most sensible, and most liberal measure devised thus far in this particular direction. Teachers who wish to advance more rapidly can obtain higher pay by simply demonstrating their fitness before the board of education. And yet the opposition continues its efforts to defeat the bill. The only one of the arguments that has a sound of reason in it is that the regulation of salaries ought to be a municipal and not a state affair. But this sounds rather ridiculous and ought to have very little weight, coming as it does from people who helped to rush a school organization scheme through the legislature and through the governor's hands in the face of a strong municipal opposition.

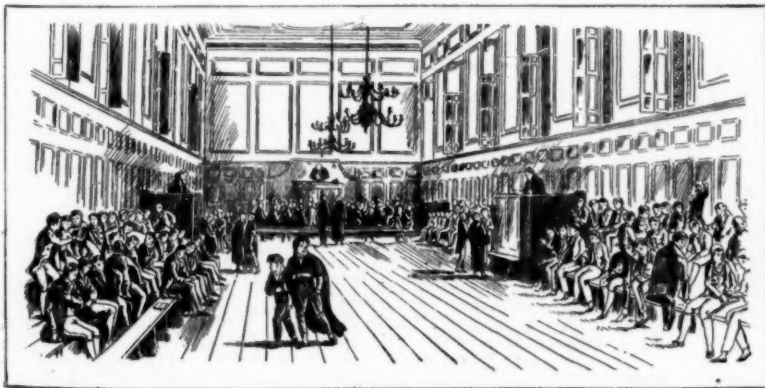
The justness of some such measure as the Ahern bill will be better understood by the teachers outside New York city if they consider the following facts: On the salary list of Manhattan and Bronx there are over a hundred teachers who have been in the service of the board of education for periods varying from fourteen to thirty years, yet whose salaries are to-day less than six hundred dollars a year; over four hundred teachers after fourteen years of such work are receiving less than seven hundred and fifty dollars. *The School Journal* knows of at least one such school where there are five women teachers with a service period averaging over twenty years, who are receiving less than seven hundred and fifty dollars. Yet all these teachers have been adjudged competent by the superintendents and inspectors. It is no fault of the teachers that they have spent the best part of their lives at wages barely sufficient in a city like New York to keep body and soul together. It has been the fault of lack of opportunity for promotion in the old system. In other words it has been the fault of the board of education in not rectifying a wrong.

It is the privilege of the state to give protection and enforce justice where the municipalities neglect to do it, just as the city claims the right to interfere in homes where the children are not properly cared for.

Gov. Black ought to sign the Ahern bill without further delay. It is simply an act of justice and humanity.

Teachers who have professional training should receive professional recognition. The most pressing need of reform is to be found in the matter of professional examinations and certification of teachers.

One standard ought to be adopted throughout this country, and all who come up to it ought to be treated with the same respect, at least that is accorded to members of the legal and medical professions. It is a burning shame, and it is degrading for teachers to be brought up to an examination-post every time a change of residence is made. We ought to have state boards of examiners from which may be selected members for a national board to prepare questions for all states. Teachers passing such an examination once should be qualified to be employed anywhere without repeated examinations.



ETON SCHOOLROOM IN THE EARLY PART OF THE CENTURY.

Courtesy of "Youth's Companion."

Collections in Public Schools.

An editorial in the Boston "Transcript" says: "It is time to call a halt with no uncertain sound in regard to the taking up of collections in public schools. It is proposed seriously by a New Jersey teacher that the ten millions of children in the public schools of the United States contribute a cent a week for fifty weeks, to make up \$5,000,000, to help Uncle Sam buy a new warship to replace the Maine. This would be an absurd perversion of the aims and objects of our public schools. The collections taken up in the schools have already become a sufficient annoyance.

"Going off half-cocked at the enemy is not patriotism. If there should be war it would be much better to keep boys and girls busy learning a great deal about other matters than in taking up collections for warships. If there should not be war, how nonsensical to keep the war craze going for a year in the minds and the pocketbooks of ten million children! It is well that the stars and stripes wave above thousands of school-houses all over this country. The silent sermon of the flag will be of unspeakably more value to the boys and girls, and therefore to their country, when they are men and women, than penny collections for the inflaming of youthful jingoism."

American Book Company Gets \$7,500.

The Kingdom Publishing Company, of Minneapolis, made an attack, in 1897, on the American Book Company, issuing a pamphlet entitled "A Foe to American Schools," written by Pres. Geo. A. Gates, of Iowa college, charging bribery, corruption, etc. The American Book Company brought suit for libel in the United States circuit court at Minneapolis, and on March 9 of this year the case came to trial before Judge Lochren; the pamphlet was held by him not to be a "privileged communication"; that his belief that Dr. Gates had evidence of the truthfulness of the statements in the pamphlet was no justification for publishing libelous matter. The jury, after deliberating for forty-five minutes, brought in a verdict of \$7,500.

New President for Swarthmore.

Prin. William W. Birdsall, of the Friends' Central school, has been chosen president of Swarthmore college, to succeed Charles De Garmo. Dr. De Garmo, as previously noted in these columns, has been elected professor of pedagogy at Cornell.

The new president is a native of Richmond, Ind., and a graduate of Earlham college. He came to the Friends' Central school in 1885, and was made its principal in 1893.

Prof. Joseph S. Walton, of the State Normal school, West Chester, has been chosen principal of the boys' department in the Friends' Central school, as successor to Prof. W. N. Birdsall, recently elected president of Swarthmore college. Dr. Walton was for nine years superintendent of schools in Chester county, and was prominently mentioned for the position which Prof. Birdsall secured.

A Monster Flag and an Impressive Ceremony.

Buffalo, N. Y.—The pupils of the Masten Park high school have made an immense flag to be used only in decorating the assembly-room. This flag is 36 by 20 feet, the largest regulation size. The idea originated with one of the teachers, Miss Kate A. Bowen, who not only planned and superintended the work, but put much actual labor into it. Shares were sold at five cents each, to pay for the cost of material. Boys and girls basted the long seams, and stitched on the sewing machine the long stripes of red and white. Boys and girls cut out the white stars, turned in the edges, and basted them. Boys and girls spaced the stars on the blue field, and then sewed them in place. There were many busy fingers at work after school hours; and then when the flag was finished and fastened to its gilded pole, came the dedication. It was the 30th of March, and Gen. Nelson A. Miles was the guest of honor. After the school—nearly a thousand in number—had gathered in the assembly-room, the orchestra played the opening strains of "The Star-Spangled Banner." The flag, fastened to its pole, had been placed on the floor at the rear of the platform; it was to be raised by three chains, one in the middle and one at each end. A boy and a girl took their places at each of the chains, and as the school began to sing "The Star-Spangled Banner," the flag was slowly raised into position. It was a most impressive sight, and when the singing of the first verse was ended, not a sound broke the stillness until Prin. F. S. Fosdick asked Prof. Coffran to make the prayer of dedication. Then Gen. Miles was introduced, and spoke to the school, explaining the significance of our flag, and comparing it with the flags of the nations, closing with a few remarks on the duties of citizenship. Mr. Fosdick proposed that as this was the first time the new flag had been displayed in public, three cheers be given for it. Amid the waving of handkerchiefs, the cheers were given with a will, and were followed by three cheers for Nelson A. Miles, commanding general of the army.

Preserve the Landmarks!

The proposed destruction of the old school-house at Sleepy Hollow has been averted by the prompt action of Supt. Skinner. The local authorities wished it destroyed, on the ground that a new school-house had been built. It is to be hoped the historic building will be preserved.

The Johns Hopkins University.

The financial straits in which the Johns Hopkins university finds itself have compelled the trustees of that institution to bring its condition before the legislature of Maryland, and to ask for state aid. Some time ago, a local subscription, in behalf of the university, resulted in the raising of nearly a quarter of a million dollars—a contribution which has enabled the university to keep up its work with practically undiminished facilities and force until the present. But the losses from depreciation of securities have been so great that a crisis cannot be much longer avoided. It is probably no exaggeration to say that no other university has ever achieved greater positive results for good in so brief a period of time. Dr. Gilman, in assuming the presidency, saw, with the insight of a true educator, that the secret of the power and influence of a great institution of learning lies primarily in its teaching body. Instead, therefore, of making large investments in buildings, Dr. Gilman persuaded his trustees to make a great investment in scholars of the first rank. He drew around him a group of distinguished teachers at the very start. The fellowship system made it possible to organize a body of picked scholars among the students, which not only attracted aspiring young men from all parts of the country, but gave the university an unusual tone of scholarly earnestness.

Within a few years, as the result of the rare sagacity of its organization, the Johns Hopkins university was known throughout the entire academic world. It was not long before it was counting its graduates who had been called to professorships in other institutions by the score, while its group system, its methods of department work, and its publications fastened the attention of the academic community in this country upon it. Its services to American education have been so important, and it has done so much to lift education above its old provincial lines, that it has laid the whole country under lasting obligations. Standing midway between the North and the South, the Johns Hopkins has meditated intellectually between the two sections. It is from that point of view an institution of the greatest importance. It has been national in its scope and service, and it ought now to command the support of the nation. It is a national, not a local, institution. With many other much older institutions of learning, colleges and universities, its endowment has suffered through no lack of foresight or sagacity on the part of its president; but its noble work ought not to be allowed to suffer because its investments have depreciated. The investment which it has made in the development of greater America ought now to yield it a support of the most generous character. To let such an institution fail through diminution of its force and limitation of its field work would be a national disgrace. There must be men of fortune who will be glad of this opportunity of investing in the future of the country by reinforcing the endowment of the Johns Hopkins.—"The Outlook."

Items of Live Interest.

New Brunswick, N. J.—As the first installment of contributions from school children of the country districts for Cuban relief, the sum of \$174 in pennies has been deposited in the bank. County Supt. H. B. Willis says that, since the teachers announced that pennies would be received from the children for the aid of the Cubans, they have been willing to devote their thoughts to nothing but the war. The country school teachers have been distracted by the warlike gossip in the school-room and the youthful demand for information.

A new course in "Current History" has recently been started at Syracuse university. This is somewhat of a novelty in the regular work of college curriculums. Its purpose is to study events of the present day in relation to their causes and effects. Students will not receive credit for it in the number of hours required for graduation; notwithstanding this 150 students signified their intention of entering the class. The course will be conducted by the department of history.

It is probable that before very long seven more associate superintendents will be appointed in the borough of Brooklyn. At present there are only three, but the charter allows the appointment of one associate superintendent for the first seven hundred teachers, and one additional for every three hundred and fifty teachers. This entitles Brooklyn to ten associate superintendents.

Every teacher, principal, superintendent, board of education, and publisher should have a copy of the "Book of the Royal Blue" for March. It is a National Educational Association number, issued by the Baltimore & Ohio railroad. It contains an article on "Washington," by William Elliott Lowes; a description of the "Congressional Library," "A Story of the Potomac," and other interesting articles. The book is filled with excellent half tones of Washington views, and is a model of the typographer's art. The B. & O. issues a guide to Washington, which can be had by paying two cents' postage. Address D. B. Martin, Mgr. Pass'r Traffic, Baltimore & Ohio R. R., Baltimore, Md., for both booklets.

Chicago Notes.

Teachers' Federation.

At the April meeting of the Teachers' Federation, one member suggested that on a two-thirds vote any undesirable member be expelled, ten days' notice being given to prepare a defense. The members seemed stunned for a moment, and then one bright little woman arose, saying if the conduct of any member was very discreditable, the board would probably take cognizance of it before her case had a chance to appear before the trial board of federation; and if she were found guilty by being removed from the schools, her eligibility for membership would be lost; so she saw no necessity for such a law. By this time, the other members had a chance to collect their wits, and, it was said, no one member could harm such a strong organization. If difference of opinion rendered a member undesirable, the purpose of the federation would be lost, as one of the chief reasons for its organization was to give the teachers an opportunity to express their thoughts freely. The member who had made the resolution, said any one who read history, must know the rumpus one woman could make, even for a whole country.

The whole sentiment of the club was against the resolution, and many inquiries were made privately as to what was back of it.

The federation does its good work for the whole corps of teachers, members or not members. The meetings are open, and but about half the teachers now belong, although a strong effort is being made to bring in all; so the reason for the resolution was buried in mystery. Instead of expelling, the federation is doing its best to increase its membership.

Miss Oberlander made a very concise nominating speech, presenting Miss Burdick as her candidate for president. The nomination was warmly seconded. Miss Lynch then presented Miss Goggin's name, saying she was a good parliamentarian, and had an abundance of tact. This was seconded, not so warmly, because, although the members recognize Miss Goggin's ability, the sentiment of loyalty to Miss Burdick was stronger.

PRINCIPALS' MEETING.

Mr. Black, of the Sherwood school, was on the program of the principals' meeting. He was to talk on "Foundations of Arithmetic." He asked for an informal discussion inviting questions, and he received what he asked for with a vengeance. It is a brave man who willingly makes himself a target for questions from the Chicago principals. Mr. Black stood the ordeal well, and gave a good presentation of his subject. His text was: 1. "What am I After?" 2. "Where am I?" 3. "The Methods to Secure What I am After." All problems, he said, came under one of three heads, separating, uniting, and comparing. Suppose the cost of three pencils given, how do you find the cost of nine? The usual way was to find the cost of one. There was no use in that—why ring in unasked for conditions? Nine is three times three, so nine pencils cost three times as much as three. Some one said, "Make it ten pencils." "The conditions are the same," remarked Mr. Black. "Ten is ten-thirds of three." "Where do you get ten-thirds?" Mr. Black looked as if he could not understand the reason for such a question, but said children who were familiar with blocks had no difficulty in understanding that. When a child said that ten is ten-thirds of three he was drawing on memory, just as when he said $4 \times 5 = 20$. And it was desirable to throw as many of these combinations into the realms of memory as possible.

"How can a child see that four is four-thirds of three?" asked Mr. Brooks. "My experience is, that they call four five-thirds of three, or six-thirds as often as not."

"If they were well grounded in relations, they would not do so." Children should be taught fractions so thoroughly that in three-fourths they can see six-eighths, or any other equivalent. The numerator is the thing; the denominator is simply an adjective, and may mean anything. A relation to be found between two-thirds and three-fourths is a relation between eight-twelfths and nine-twelfths.

Mr. Kirk, the superintendent whose arithmetic used to be in the schools, asked if a child understood "the ratio of 2 to 6 is $\frac{1}{3}$ " as well as he understood "2 is $\frac{1}{3}$ of 6."

Mr. C. S. Bartholf said: "What is the universal standard of comparison? It is the first thing which appeals to the universal mind. The natural way is easiest. We must not lose sight of the child, and we must not strip arithmetic of the little common sense left in it."

Another principal arose and said: "Mr. Bartholf's difficulty is here: This is one of the impossible problems which exist, only in text-books for public schools. We buy flour in barrels, or fractions of barrels; so in real life we would confront no such problems; but it is our duty to find new ways of thinking, and we don't think now as we did. Years ago, we were all taught to work from unity, but a better way has been found; or, rather, unity may be something besides. We do not travel as we did formerly. Brother Bartholf may prefer to go to Washington by stagecoach, but I prefer to go by steam."

Mr. Bartholf said he was not arguing for methods, but he asked, "Are the teachers themselves clear in their minds about ratio?" He found them "deliciously bewildered," and they

should not be allowed to bewilder the children.

Mr. Kirk thought "ratio" was an abstraction beyond children's comprehension. They should use words which interpreted their thoughts. Mrs. Young said the use of the word "ratio" by children of first and second grades was entirely opposed to the true method of developing language in children. Mr. Lawrence thought economy of process was gained by the ratio method.

Out of all the principals but eight or ten take part in any discussion, and it is amusing to notice how the principals in Mr. Speer's district defend the ratio method while the others oppose it, not violently, but enough to show their love for "old things."

Mary E. Fitzgerald.

Philadelphia Notes.

Lively Times Over a School Name.

For some time past, the new public school at Fifteenth and Norris streets, Philadelphia, has been the source of warm discussions. The sectional board of the Twenty-second ward, after a spirited contest, recommended that the school be named "Teter B. Chadwick," in honor of the father-in-law of Charles A. Porter. This was nearly three months ago. Opposition appeared in the board of education, and the name failed of adoption by a tie vote of 17 to 17.

A number of the board wish to have the school named after Judge Allison, but the sectional board will probably recommend that it be called the "Frances E. Willard" school. The adherents of Mr. Porter will work for this name.

The Functions of the High School.

Prin. Ray Green Huling, of the Cambridge, Mass., high school, recently spoke to the Philadelphia Public Education Association on "The Functions of the High School." He said that these were three-fold—vocational, social, and culture. Boston had eleven high schools distributed throughout the city, and to this distribution he attributed the large enrollment of 2,900 girls and 2,300 boys. The evening high schools were as efficiently organized as the day high schools. A problem that must be solved in the near future is that of the commercial high school.

Miss Ida Wood spoke in criticism of the centralization of Philadelphia's high schools. In these, the enrollment, including the two manual training schools, is only 4,389, or less than that of Boston, with double the population. She claimed that fully 6,000 boys and girls in Philadelphia are deprived of a high school education, owing to lack of facilities.

Mr. Edward Lewis, of the board of education, said that the so-called needs of the boys' high school rested like an incubus upon all the other schools. Higher education should be made subordinate, owing to the crying need for increased educational facilities in the elementary schools.

Eighth Grade Teachers Lay Down Rules.

At a meeting of Philadelphia eighth-grade teachers, recently held, some opinions reached were as follows:

That the policy of writing examples on the board is bad from every point of view, and that a good book of arithmetic problems should be in the hands of each pupil.

That at least 75 per cent. of the questions in examinations should be on the grade work of the class examined.

That more time is spent on the teaching of stocks and brokerage in the sixth, seventh, and eighth years than is commensurate with their importance.

That since there is scarcely another subject in which pupils differ so greatly in temperament and ability as in drawing, that subject should not enter into the decision regarding a pupil's fitness for higher schools.

That more time should be given in the lower grades to drill in the fundamental operations of arithmetic.

N. E. A. Headquarters in Washington.

The Arlington hotel has been selected as the central official point in Washington for the National Educational Association. The officers of the association, the president, secretary, and treasurer will have rooms on the office floor of the hotel. The several states will have their headquarters on the first floor. The publishing interests will have rooms on the second floor. Probably no hotel could be more suitable in every way for the purposes of being a headquarters for the N. E. A., than the Arlington. There are sixteen large rooms, 16 by 22, to be occupied by the several state organizations; there are the same number of rooms, and of the same size, for the publishing interests.

The exhibits of books, educational journals, apparatus, supplies, etc., will be in the Hall of the Ancients, but a block or so away; these exhibits will be more extensive and attractive than ever before, so that it is fortunate such admirable rooms as the Arlington furnishes are available; here the various exhibitors can meet their friends and transact the business that always brings together so many from all parts of the country.

The states of New York, Pennsylvania, and Illinois have already engaged rooms for their headquarters here; probably most of the states will be found here. These rooms are from

\$15 to \$20 per day; these prices include board for two persons.

The Arlington has a splendid reputation; it is of vast size, and every effort will be made to accommodate the educational people. The general rates to members will be \$3.50 per day. Of course, but a small part of the membership can expect to obtain board here. It will be the central business and official point of the association.

New York City.

No School Apportionment Till Governor Black Decides on the Ahern Bill.

The *School Journal* has learned, from good authority, that the board of estimate and apportionment has decided to divide the budget of the board of education, reported in these columns last week, and to consider separately the general estimate of \$10,009,189, required for the general expenses of the board, and the estimate of \$5,389,000 for school buildings in the boroughs of Manhattan-Bronx and Brooklyn.

This is the interest of prompt payment of the teachers' salaries. The *School Journal* has it on very good authority, however, that the board of estimate and apportionment will pass no general appropriation for the board of education till it is known positively what Governor Black intends to do with the Ahern bill.

If Governor Black signs the bill, it will necessitate an entirely new estimate by the board of education of the amount of money required for teachers' salaries, in order that the requirements of the bill may be met.

Will Governor Black sign the Ahern bill? Last week a committee from the teachers' associations appeared before him in the interest of the bill. Among the committee were Dr. J. P. Conroy, William L. Ettinger, Mrs. J. J. Hill, Miss Mary A. Magovern, Miss Alida S. Williams, and Miss Mary E. Tate. Mr. J. J. Little, of the borough school board, and a representative from the district attorney's office, also spoke for the bill. After the hearing, a prominent senator, who has the ear of the governor, informed members of the committee that Governor Black said if he remained in the same frame of mind as after listening to the committee that he should sign the bill.

At Wednesday's meeting of the board of estimate and apportionment Mayor Van Wyck announced, owing to the lengthy delay liable to ensue in connection with making up a new budget, if Governor Black signs the Ahern bill, that he was willing to pass another monthly appropriation to pay the March salaries of teachers. This was accordingly done and the teachers will soon get their March pay.

Annual Dinner of Hoi Scolasticol.

About 150 members and guests of the Hoi Scolasticol attended the second annual dinner of that organization at the Hotel Savoy, Saturday evening, April 16. The occasion was a most enjoyable one. Dr. J. P. Conroy presided, and acted as toastmaster. Among the guests were Hon. Charles Bulkley Hubbell, president of the board of education, Commissioners Hugh Kelly and Henry A. Rogers, Messrs Burlingame, Ketchum, and Dr. McSweeney, of the borough school board, Asst. Supts. James Lee, Matthew J. Elgas, Gustav Straubmuller, and Albert P. Marble, Supv. Dr. James P. Haney, Gilbert H. Crawford, of the City college, and Simeon Ford.

President Hubbell responded to the toast, "The Borough Board," making a very effective speech, in which he emphasized the advantages of occasions like the dinner of Hoi Scolasticol for developing a sympathetic, fraternal feeling between members of the school boards and the teachers. He dwelt on the idea that the teacher should take a prominent part in the movements of the day, and said the time is not far distant when the teaching profession will be universally held as the equal, if not the superior, of the other learned professions, both socially and intellectually. It requires more ability now to be a successful teacher than it does to be a successful lawyer or doctor. He saw in Hoi Scolasticol a rallying point for the advancement of the teaching profession of New York city. His speech was received with marked applause.

Other toasts were: "The College," Gilbert H. Crawford; "The State," Dr. James Lee; "From the Outside," Simeon Ford; "The School and the Home," John T. Nicholson, and "Our Country," Plowdon Stevens, Jr.

Letters of regret were received from Hon. Thomas C. Platt, Governor Black, Mayor Van Wyck, Senator Guy, and Senator Ahern.

For Officers of the Teachers' Association.

There was a large and interesting meeting of the delegates and directors of the New York City Teachers' Association at the City College, Tuesday afternoon, when nominations were made for the annual election of officers, May 9. The following candidates were elected in nomination:

For president: Dr. J. P. Conroy, Dr. William Ettinger. For vice-president: Mary E. Tate, Mary A. Magovern. For treasurer, Sarah F. Buckelew. For financial secretary, Henrietta Woodman. For directors: J. T. Dwyer, Cecil A. Kidd, Edward Stitt, R. R. Requa, W. F. O'Callaghan, J. T. Boyle, Edward R. Darling, Joseph Wade, Julia Birdseye, Miss Clark and Miss Regan.

Five directors are to be elected, and the last five are the present incumbents.

The election will be held May 9 at the City College, polls opening at 3.30 and closing at 5.30 P.M. The meeting Tuesday elected these inspectors of election: H. P. O'Neil, Miss Esther Phillips, John T. Nicholson, R. R. Requa, C. A. Kidd.

Sixty-Day Substitute Period Omitted from Proposed New By-Laws.

The Manhattan-Bronx school board has left out of its proposed by-laws the old provision, requiring sixty days' service on the part of substitute teachers before receiving a permanent appointment. The new by-laws provide three kinds of licenses: first, a provisional license, good for one year, on passing the preliminary examination to teach; second, a renewal of this provisional license, from year to year, for three years, which is called a temporary license; and third, the permanent license, which may be granted on recommendation of the borough board of superintendents at the end of the first three or more years of service.

There is some question, on the part of some of the superintendents, as to the wisdom of omitting the sixty-day substitute period. It is thought that it would not be wise to allow an utterly incompetent applicant to remain for one year in the system, as the provisional license, proposed by the board would seem to allow; but that the old sixty-day substitute period would work better, both for the would-be teacher and for the schools.

The Stereopticon in the Kindergarten.

An interesting exhibition was given at P. S. No. 30, 224 East 88th street, Monday afternoon, when seventy-two stereopticon slides, prepared by Prof. A. S. Bickmore, of the Metropolitan Museum of Natural History, and designed for use in primary and kindergarten classes, were shown to the teachers under the direction of Miss Jenny B. Merrill, supervisor of kindergartens in Manhattan-Bronx public schools.

The subjects were: "A Visit to the Country," "A Visit to the City," and "A Visit to the Seashore"; and they were very attractively presented. These slides are to be used in schools throughout the state, under direction of the superintendent of public instruction.

Free Art Classes for Manhattan-Bronx Teachers.

A series of five Saturday morning classes in freehand and mechanical drawing, in brush work, color, and design is being arranged by Dr. James P. Haney and his assistants for New York public school teachers. The lessons will be given with special reference to the new manual training course of study in Manhattan-Bronx, and the first one will be given Saturday, April 23. Classes will be in session from 9:30 A. M. to 11 A. M. for five consecutive Saturdays, at P. S. No. 77. Attendance is entirely optional, instruction is free, and no record attaches to a teacher's attendance or non-attendance of the classes.

The classes in color, brush work, and design have been filled, and no more can be admitted to them; but there are still some vacancies in the freehand drawing, mechanical drawing, and modeling classes.

Supt. Maxwell Considering Applicants for Licenses.

About 600 men and women have applied to City Supt. Maxwell for licenses to teach in the public schools of Greater New York, under section 1081 of the city charter, which gives the superintendent power to issue licenses without formal examination. There are a large number of vacancies which cannot be filled in the regular way, owing to delay in appointing the board of examiners.

To a *School Journal* representative Supt. Maxwell said that each applicant's record in the normal school and since graduation, whether the applicant had taught or not, would be very carefully inquired into. One question asked every applicant is, "What professional reading have you done since graduation?"

EXAMINERS.

When will the examining board be likely to be appointed, that teachers may pass the regular prescribed examinations for licenses? was asked.

The reply was, that this board cannot, in any event, be appointed before the meeting of the board of education, April 27.

The application of the board of education to have the members of the examining board placed in the non-competitive class, as reported in last week's *School Journal*, has come before the civil service board. It has been referred to the corporation counsel for his opinion, as to what effect the state civil service law, just passed, will have on the rules of the board. Secretary Lee Phillips, of the board of civil service examiners, said that an opinion has been received from the corporation counsel, but he was not at liberty to give it out. The matter will be decided, it is thought, this week.

Superintendent Ward, of Brooklyn.

Edward G. Ward, the newly-elected borough superintendent of Brooklyn, was born in Williamsburg, about fifty years ago. He is a descendant of an old colonial family of Connecticut, which moved to New York just before the Revolution. His grandfather was in the war of 1812, and two of his brothers, in the Civil war.

Mr. Ward attended the public schools of New York and Ho-

boken, and the normal schools of New York city and New Jersey. He began teaching when only a boy, and at seventeen was vice-president of a grammar school in Hoboken. Not long after, he became principal of grammar school number 1, Bergen, N. J., which is now No. 11, Jersey City. His excellent success here gained him the position of instructor in mathematics and grammar in the Jersey City normal school.

In 1879, Mr. Ward became principal of No. 19, Brooklyn. In 1883, he became associate superintendent, which position he held until his election to succeed Supt. Maxwell.

Mr. Ward has been a most successful teacher. He understands dealing with children, and has tact and patience. He holds his teachers to strict accountability, but is always fair and just.

He is the author of "Graded Lessons in Letter Writing and Business Forms" and the "Rational Method of Reading." The *School Journal* for April 9 contained an excellent picture of Supt. Ward.

Problems of School Discipline.

The New York Suburban Educational Council discussed the practical questions of attendance, tardiness, discipline, and the care of school property, at its meeting Saturday, in the New York University building. About seventy-five superintendents, principals, and teachers were present, who voted in favor of holding another meeting next month.

The principal interest of the meeting centered around the discussion of corporal punishment, and a majority of the council seemed to favor corporal punishment as a last resort in dealing with unruly pupils.

Supt. Charles E. Gorton, of Yonkers, said he believed it much better to flog the unruly boy into his place in school than hold him there by other means, than to turn the boy loose into the street, or send him to a reformatory.

Supt. Young, of New Rochelle, strongly opposed corporal punishment. It is not allowed in his schools, although the right to use it has not been taken away by law. "Corporal punishment is a short cut to an end," said he; "but are you going to establish the principle? Are you going to treat one boy differently from another?" "Yes!" "Yes!" "Certainly!" came from different parts of the room in response to Mr. Young's questions. "Then I pity you, and the pupils in your charge," was the reply.

Supt. Rockwell, of Portchester, thought moral sense is sometimes developed through physical sense—the application of the rod.

Supt. J. I. Gorton, of Sing Sing, said the question whether corporal punishment shall be inflicted by somebody is different from the question of whether teachers shall inflict it. He is not in favor of the latter.

In the discussion how to prevent tardiness, the point was brought out that too great a punishment for this offense is apt to induce the pupil, if he is tardy, not to enter the school, but to return to his home, or to play truant. The fact was also developed that the spirit of the school has much to do with the habit.

THE DEVICE FOR RECORDING PUPILS' OFFENSES.

The device of having a book and requiring a teacher to write therein the offense of any pupil which she sends to a principal for discipline had its advocates, pro and con. One principal declared that such a device checks both pupil and teacher, and reduces the "office work" of the principal to a minimum.

Prin. Larkin, of the Brooklyn Manual Training high school, said he had a card catalogue of pupils' names. Whenever a serious offense is committed, it is catalogued on one card, and sent to the principal, who transmits the report to the parent.

Chairman Preston, of the council, opposed the recording of offenses as taking too much of the teacher's time. "I want the bad boy to interrupt the work of the class and school as little as possible. The bad boy should be removed from the class, and be dealt with at the convenience of the principal."

PRIN. LARKIN ON MANUAL TRAINING.

Prin. Larkin, of Brooklyn, in discussing manual training, said it should begin in the kindergarten, and continue up to the age of 16 or 17. It is least effective in the upper grades of the high school. Cooking is not manual training; sewing is one of its poorest forms. Girls should have some sort of light wood work.

"THE SCHOOL JOURNAL" THANKED.

The following resolution was passed by the executive committee of the council:

"That the council tender its thanks to *The School Journal* for the publication of notices, and that the secretary endeavor to continue these favors, and invite the reporters for this paper to attend our meetings."

Meetings in Manhattan-Bronx.

April 25.—Association of Female Assistants in Grammar Departments, P. S. No. 19, 225 E. 27th street, 4 P. M.

April 29.—Teachers' Co-operative Building and Loan Association, Bloomingdale hall, East 60th street, 4 P. M.

April 29.—Teachers' Building and Loan Association, Room 1001, Presbyterian building, Fifth avenue and 20th street.

Minneapolis Falling Behind.

This talk of teachers' hardships
Is apt to be unfair,
For teachers aren't the only ones
With heavy woes to bear.

We face a dreary prospect
Far worse than loss of pay—
A sixteen weeks' vacation
With naught to do but play.

This, says the Minneapolis "Junior" is the way the pupils look at the prospect of the schools being closed the last of this month. For various reasons, the expenditures of the schools have for several years exceeded their incomes.

This condition of affairs came to a climax this year, when it was discovered that about \$90,000 more was needed in order to keep the schools open until the regular summer vacation. The city council authorized the issuance of \$100,000 worth of bonds, but placed severe restrictions on the board of education. The city attorney held that it was illegal for the board to borrow. Only one course was left open—retrenchment. This retrenchment takes the form of closing the schools April 29. The teachers protested, and the parents protested, but to no purpose. The teachers sent out circulars appealing for a popular subscription, to enable the schools to continue. This was heartily responded to, and more than half the sum was raised. But pledges were made, on condition that the whole amount should be subscribed. Subscriptions stopped, and the plan fell through. Thus the teachers lose six weeks' salary—a reduction of about fifteen per cent.

Having definitely settled the fact that the schools will close April 29, the board is now wondering how to so retrench next year that the money will hold out. It has been suggested to cut one week off each end of the school year; but such a proposition meets with little favor at the present moment. The friends of education are discouraged and disheartened. The sixteen weeks' vacation which the children think "too much of a good thing" may be productive of the worst results. Miss B. Evelyn Weston, principal of the Monroe school, has sent out a circular letter asking employment for her 1,100 pupils for the next five months. In this way, she hopes to place many of them under the watchful care they so much need. Such a situation is deplorable in the extreme—whether it will exist another year, only time can tell. Minneapolis would do well to look to her laurels.

Progress in St. Louis.

(Notes from Supt. Soldan's Report.)

Supt. Soldan's Suggestions.

Supt. F. Louis Soldan, of St. Louis, Mo., makes the following interesting remarks in his annual report:

Pictures, when they can be used in connection with geography, history, and story or narrative, lend to the topic new charms and greater reality. Where an abstract topic can be "visualized," the illustration helps to explain it. Illustrations produce a clearer and therefore more lasting impression, and thus are great aids to the memory. Any source of information through sense perception and reasoning should receive full recognition.

The child may at times draw inferences from their inspection which without them he would have to learn through the verbal statement. School work, at best, is essentially verbal. Even the great facts of the material world, in geography, science, etc., must, in the nature of the case, be partly communicated through words.

These considerations lend special importance to the use of illustrations in teaching, because they give an opportunity for departure from tiresome, verbal monotony.

A fuller assimilation of the ideas which underlie kindergarten work by the common school will become possible when the ingenuity of the teaching profession makes a systematic attempt to find, in the customary studies of the common school, time and opportunity for the free activity of the child in directions not altogether limited to the lines of acquisition and repetition, and including not merely verbal statement, but also fuller forms of activity. Where full activity is stunted, as is the case frequently in the school-room, with its prescribed limits, the forces not called into play are likely to find vent in mischief and disorder. It is quite possible at times to enlist these otherwise destructive forces, representing frequently the child's unused energy, in some mode of activity connected with the school-room work, and thus make them contributory to the work of education. Where dis-

order in the school-room results from the irrepressible striving of vital energy for display, an enlarged or more varied scope of work may be the remedy. There is certainly a possibility of supplementing book study and intellectual work by some form of wider activity.

The question, "What shall the child do with it?" is at times asked in reference to certain lessons placed in a course of study. This query has a double significance. It may mean, in what way can the child use his knowledge of geography, history, or of drawing, in the calling which he will adopt when he is grown? The other and immediate meaning of the question, which every teacher should bear in mind, is, "What can he do with it," in the school-room, after he has recited his lesson? Can he compare it freely with another lesson, and discover relations? It is possible to devise any activity on the part of the child more comprehensive than the verbal production involved in the process of oral recitation? Is there any way in which the child can be made to apply the knowledge which he has gained, in some school-room activity in which he must use the data of information, and which constrains him to display his individuality in the use thereof?

School work should not alienate itself from life. Wherever a connection can be established between the lesson of the room and the actualities of the day, instruction should be brought into touch with it. This does not mean that the petty affairs of life should be allowed to encroach upon instruction, but rather that the most significant phases of daily history, of culture in society and state should have a place in the school-room. School should constantly seize the phenomena of human events, interweave them with the topics of instruction, and show them in their highest and noblest aspects. School should lead the child to early participation of life in thought and sympathy, for this will prepare him for participation in action.

DRIFT OF EDUCATIONAL WORK IN OTHER CITIES.

The changes in methods and plans of teaching of the last ten years have been so great and universal that a retrospect is startling. In many respects the new work is wise and beneficial, but there are aspects of it in which the new shows a deterioration rather than a gain. In most places there are in each school sets of books other than the regular readers. Proficiency in reading is attained, not by reading the same lesson a great many times, but by reading a great many stories of about the same degree of difficulty: it is believed that the incidental repetition of the same word in different connections will fix it sufficiently in the child's mind without special drill.

Much that is worth preserving is found in the old as well as in the new. While it is difficult to give a general survey of the multitude of changes made, some of the new lines in which school work has been drifting, in many cities, are sufficiently well-defined and fixed to be summed up, in a brief form, for the consideration of teachers.

1. In reading, supplementary work is universal.
2. Primary reading is script reading. The subjects for the first sentences are taken from the child's experience. The tree or the bird which he has seen, the snow on the ground, anything that he has observed, any story to which he has listened, become the subjects of the primary reading lessons.
3. Reading in the higher grades is no longer made an aim and object in itself, but is relegated to the place of a means for gaining information. Literature, or nature study, etc., have become the ends in whose pursuit reading is employed, regularly and constantly, it is true, but rather as an incident than as an aim in itself.
4. Vertical writing has been adopted almost everywhere.
5. The province of arithmetic has been designedly and decidedly encroached upon by other studies. Many topics which were deemed essential ten years ago are omitted altogether or are taught incidentally only (*e. g.*, Mr. Foster reports that the G. C. D. and the L. C. M. are no longer taught as special subjects in the Chicago schools.)
6. Physical geography, as a separate study, has lost its place in the common schools in several cities. It has reappeared, however, as a high school study.
7. Manual training, that is, cooking, sewing, and carpentry, or sloyd, has found a place in almost every city school system. In the new buildings rooms are provided for these purposes.
8. The time gained through the elimination of physical geography and parts of arithmetic is largely given to the "enrichment of the school curriculum," to use President Elliot's expression. The study of English history, and in some places (*e. g.*, Indianapolis) Greek and Roman history is begun in the district schools. The study of literature is introduced at an early age and carried from the primary to the higher grades, where the reading of some plays of Shakespeare is frequently taken up. Elementary science is taught extensively.

THE SCHOOL JOURNAL

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New Books.

"A Literary History of India," by R. W. Frazer, is the first of a series of literary histories. Other volumes in course of preparation are on "France," by Marcel Schwab; "Ireland," by Douglas Hyde; "The Jews," by Israel Abrahams, and "The United States," by Barrett Wendell. The outside of the present volume, it must be confessed, is forbidding, but the impression is soon lost when the reader finds himself dwelling upon the beauty and fluency of the author's language. Mr. Frazer is also the author of "Silent Gods and Sun-Steeped Lands" and "British India" in "The Story of the Nations" series: So his work is authentic, and while of particular interest to the student of history and literature, makes instructive and entertaining reading for the average person.

Much of the early history of India is learned from the 1,028 "Hymns of the Rig Veda," the treasured songs which the Aryan invaders sang to their gods in gratitude for having safely reached the end of their long journey. In these hymns are all the hopes and ideals of their times, all their authors deemed worthy to be handed down to future ages. Following out their contents, the author gives us glimpses of the life of the times they represent, the customs, duties, loves, and superstitions of the people. The power and inspiration of the poets are shown, and how, to quote the beautiful language of the author, "with patient strife and long pondering, they strove to pierce the secret of the universe, tear from the moaning tempests the message they bore, and catch the whispered voices that stole, as the evening fell, through the deepening stillness of the forest."

The religious worship of the Aryans, the rites of Brahmanism, its struggle with Buddhism, and the peculiar forms of each, are all fully treated.

The two great Indian epics are the "Mahabharata" and "Ramayana." The first is an attempt to weave into one story all the floating mass of epic tradition, demonology, and local hero worship. It is 20,000 lines in length. The "Ramayana" consists of 40,000 lines, and is the legends of the hero Rama, who is an incarnation of the god Vishnu. His mission on earth is to destroy wrong and inculcate virtue. The Sanskrit dramas have an intensely interesting chapter devoted to them, and one of the most famous ones, the "Mricchakatika," or "Mud Cart," is partly reproduced. In the final chapter, on "The Fusing Point of Old and New," the author gives the recent history of India, the attempts for its betterment, the progress of education, the dangers that English rule must confront, and the prospects for the wider diffusion of intelligence. (Chas. Scribner's Sons. Price, \$4.00.)

Every student of English literature should be acquainted with that sublime and wonderful epic, "Paradise Lost," if, for no other reason than to get into his head the music of Milton's blank verse. A recent edition for schools contains books I. and II. entire, and portions of books III., IV., VI., VII., and X. It is edited by Albert Perry-Walker, M.A., of the Boston English high school, who has added an introduction giving a biography of Milton, and a summary of the astronomy, mythology, etc., of the poem, and numerous notes. (D. C. Heath & Co., Boston. 40 cents.)

The second volume of that remarkable work, "The Literary History of the American Revolution," by Prof. Moses Coit Tyler, of Cornell university, has just been issued. The first volume traces the development of political discontent in the Anglo-American colonies, beginning with the year 1765 and ending with 1776; this one traces the history from 1776 to 1783. The author, however, has not bound himself down strictly to these dates; there are points where the narrative necessarily overlaps. It gives copious extracts from the almost forgotten prose and verse of the men of that time, which, however much it may lack the quality of true literature, cannot fail to have much interest to the American to-day; especially when taken in connection with the history which Prof. Tyler presents so admirably. The book treats of the following topics; Samuel Adams and William Livingston—

their literary services to the Revolution; John Dickinson as penman of the Revolution; Thomas Paine as literary irellance in the War for Independence; the literary warfare against American independence; Francis Hopkinson as humorous champion of American independence; satires, songs, and ballads for American independence; the dramatic literature of the Revolution; prison literature; Philip Freneau as poet and satirist of the War for Independence; pulpit champions of the American Revolution; three academic preachers and publicists; two apostles of quietness and good-will; Franklin in the literature of the Revolution; the writers of history. This work, the result of long and arduous research, will take its place as a standard authority on this branch of American history. (G. P. Putnam's Sons, New York. \$3.00.)

A subject which is not usually pursued until the student has had considerable of the higher mathematics, and until he has entered a college or a technical school, is simplified by Mansfield Merriman for manual training schools in his little book on "The Strength of Materials." The book deals with questions of strength, the subject of elastic deformations occupying a subordinate place. All the rules for the investigation and design of common beams, including the subject of moment of inertia, are presented by simple algebraic and geometric methods. (John Wiley & Sons, New York. \$1.00.)

It is not possible to read all that is written, in prose or verse, but every person who pretends to a knowledge of literature ought to be acquainted with choice selections from the best writers; hence the value of anthologies like Walter Learned's "Treasury of American Verse." In the three hundred pages in this book are in the neighborhood of two hundred selections, so that none of them are long; many of them are gems of only two or three stanzas. Many of the great lyrics are found in the book, which is one the lover of poetry will surely treasure. (Frederick A. Stokes Co., New York. \$1.25.)

"The Science of Discourse" is presented very clearly and concisely by Prof. Arnold Tompkins; his volume is intended for use as a text-book in high schools and colleges. In preparing the volume, he had two thoughts in view: (1) That rhetoric is not a study for the special few, but for the mass of mankind who need to communicate thought, and (2) that the most practical results follow from holding the obverse phases of the discourse process into the unity of a single discussion, thus giving skill in all phases while reaching more deeply for the principle controlling each. (Ginn & Co., Boston.)

In her book for mothers, "Child Culture in the Home," Mrs. Martha B. Mosher has prepared a delightful and suggestive treatment of those phases of child training which lie most immediately and responsibly within the home. The treatment of the emotions, the moral sense, heredity and environment, the value of play, character, language and literature, habits of childhood and of youth, domestic economy, and half a dozen additional topics, is sensible, well seasoned with scientific facts and opinions, and adapted to the capacity of every intelligent mother who is in search of some handy volume that is both entertaining and instructive. It is not a bloodless exposition of a few facts or forms, but it is written from the heart, elevating in its tone, and strong in its connections. (Fleming H. Revell Company, 12 mo., pp. 240. \$1.00.)

"Birds of Village and Field" is, Florence A. Merriam, the author states, a bird book for beginners. Certainly anyone who had never pursued this fascinating study, would become interested from reading this book alone. So much has been written on birds within the last few years that one who has tried to read everything pertaining to the subject almost shudders at the thought of anything more. But one peep between the covers of this book, and its originality appears. Even the illustrations are new; especially the picture of the three little chimney swifts, drawn by Ernest Seto Thompson. The book opens with an introduction, treating of the method of finding a bird's name, where to find the birds, how to watch them, and how they affect trees, gardens, and farms. A field color key follows, with illustrations of the markings of many varieties. Then comes the book proper, with its descriptions of the birds of village and field, beginning with the ruby-throated humming bird, and closing with the thrushes and bluebirds. Keys are given to the warblers, thrushes, and bluebirds. The appendix includes a spring migration list for St. Louis, Washington, and Connecticut, lists of winter birds, and an outline for field observations. Although another bird book, this one is its own excuse for being; an excuse that will be gladly accepted by its readers. (Houghton, Mifflin, & Co., Boston and New York. Price, \$2.00.)

A notable addition to the Riverside Library for Young People is "The Pilgrims in Their Three Homes," by William Elliot Griffiths, D.D. The book was undertaken, in a desire to learn the real facts of Pilgrim history, and allay the sectarian opposition caused by the proposal of the Congregational Club to erect a monument at Delfshaven, in commemoration of Dutch hospitality.

The story of the Pilgrims is told in wonderfully simple language, and in an easy, graceful style. The real epoch of the Pilgrims in their three homes, England, Holland, and America, covers little more than a century. William Brewster, who finally became their leader and guide, had imbibed the progressive spirit of Cambridge university, and soon rose to power as assistant to Elizabeth's envoy in Holland. Here he saw, and soon learned to love the Dutch self-government of cities, the democratic spirit of the churches, the public schools, and free instruction to the poor, the freedom of the press and religious toleration. On his return, he became the soul of those who labored for freedom of conscience. When the edict of conformity or exile went forth, he, with William Bradford, led the sturdy Pilgrims to a new home in the Holland he had learned to love. Eleven years they lived here, cultivating the arts of peace, and building up industries and home. Their occupations, their loves and home life, their education, and the pleasures of their children, make chapters of absorbing interest.

Brewster's libels against King James, and the seizure of the types, made Holland an uncomfortable home for the Pilgrims. Many months of debate ensued, as to the course they should pursue. All hope of freeing England from intolerance was gone, and so they turned toward America, and the long journey of the Mayflower was begun.

Graphically are told the sorrows and sufferings, the voyage and the landing, the solemn compact at Cape Cod, the early struggles, disease, and hardship. Then came the period of growth, the development of law and institutions, their food, dress, customs, superstitions, and social life. The forming of the New England confederation ends the story of the Pilgrims.

Dr. Griffiths has scattered throughout the book hundreds of

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bits of information in history and mythology. These alone give the book a freshness and charm that cannot fail to interest. Every school library should have the book on its shelves. (Houghton, Mifflin, & Co., Boston and New York. Price, 75 cents.)

Teachers have found great advantage in studying with their classes nature's phases as they appear from month to month. This course has been followed extensively in the higher grades. Minetta L. Warren now applies the same method to lower grades in the little book entitled "From September to June with Nature." The purpose of the lessons is not to give information alone, or to tell the child what he can find out for himself; but to arouse his interest, to excite his curiosity, and, in so doing, to lead him to habits of observation and reflection. The language is adapted to the comprehension of young pupils and the illustrations are numerous and beautiful. The book is finely printed and has colored illustrations on the covers. (D. C. Heath & Co., Boston. 35 cents.)

There have been many daring expeditions in search of the north pole, but none that equal that of Salomon-Auguste Andr  , who sought to reveal the mysteries of that frozen region by means of a voyage in a balloon. The daring aeronaut left Spitzbergen in his balloon, in company with two companions on July 11 last, and so far no definite intelligence has been received from them. The account of the fitting up of the balloon and the flight into the unknown region is told in a volume entitled "Andr  's Balloon Expedition," written by Henri Lachambre and Alexis Machuron. Though the expedition has doubtless failed and the bold balloonists have met death in the icy north, the heroism that carried out such a bold undertaking cannot fail to elicit our admiration and engage our liveliest interest. The book tells the story with much detail and is illustrated by over fifty reproductions of photographs taken on the spot. (Frederick A. Stokes Co., New York. \$1.50.)

Most of us do not pay sufficient attention to the preservation of the health of the body. All would be impressed with the importance of the matter by reading Dr. T. W. Topham's book, "Health of Body and Mind." He tells what disease is, shows why we are sick and how to get well, discusses nature's laws, points out why we are not happy and the relationship of mind and muscle, and gives instructions for the symmetrical development of the muscles. (T. W. Topham, Brooklyn borough, New York city.)

Prof. Joseph S. Walton, of the State normal college at West Chester, and Martin G. Brumbaugh, professor of pedagogy at the University of Pennsylvania, have done a great service to the public by preparing the volume entitled "Stories of Pennsylvania." They reproduce the atmosphere and feeling of the early times, and give the reader a more vivid picture of colonial and pioneer life than volumes of ordinary narrative could do. The stories are all of a deeply interesting character and represent every section of the state and every period in its history. While these stories have all the charm of romance they are historically accurate and trustworthy. The illustrations are numerous, almost every story having its appropriate picture. They include portraits, reproductions of rare title pages and manuscripts, pictures of colonial costumes and furniture, historic scenes, etc. The book is admirably adapted for school and home reading. It is an ideal book for supplementary reading in schools, or for use in connection with the regular class book in United States history. (American Book Co., New York. 60 cents.)

A new edition of the favorite manual, "Westlake's Common-School Literature has been issued. The author in this book has brought within just limits a teachable review of English and American literature, from Chaucer to Rudyard Kipling, and from Cotton Mather to Mark Twain. Mention is made of all the authors of note included in those periods and brief extracts from their works are given. The book is handy in size and plan, and has been found very popular in school. (Christopher Sower Co., Philadelphia.)

Why spend a long period in learning Greek in order to enjoy their classics when they can be had in translation? True, somewhat of the charm of the original is lost in any rendering, yet it is a satisfaction to have read these masters in any form. The Pocket Literal Translations of the Classics, will give thousands a chance to make up for the want of a classical education. One of these little classics contains the first nine books of the Iliad of Homer, translated by Theodore Alois Buckley, B. A., with an introduction by Edward Brooks, Jr. (David McKay, Philadelphia. 50 cents.)

"The Captives and Trinummus of Plautus," with introduction and notes by Prof. E. P. Morris, of Yale college, has been added to the College Series of Latin Authors. The text of these plays is from the Teubner text of Goetz and Schoell. The introduction and notes are intended to be such as will give real help to students in college classes. The sections in the introduction on the syntax of Plautus contain a good deal of matter which has not before been brought together, and may be of use to instructors as well as students. (Ginn & Co., Boston.)

A guide to the study of prose fiction, which constitutes the principal form of literature of this age, is furnished by Charity

Dye, of the Indianapolis high school, in "The Story-Teller's Art." It is based on the assumption that fiction not only fills a needed place in the curriculum of the secondary schools, but that it furnishes a means for language discipline, and for the acquisition of knowledge; that it develops the power to appreciate, and to express, and to give the student a fullness of life that cannot be supplied in any other way. All the elements are analyzed as the materials, the setting, the plot, the incident, the characters, the method, the purpose, etc. The book is brief, to the point—has suggestive questions and explanations, and cannot fail to be a great help to teachers and pupils. (Ginn & Co., Boston.)

The ability to speak French fluently is not a common accomplishment, even for those who have studied the language extensively. Much can be accomplished, however, by the use of the "Tourist's Vade Mecum," containing French colloquial conversation on various subjects, with vocabularies, tables, etc., and the exact pronunciation of every word spelled out. (Sir Isaac Pitman & Sons, New York. 35 cents.)

One does not have to go very far into the study of literature before discovering how largely the poets have borrowed from each other. Take, for instance, the tale of "Palamon and Arcite," of Dryden, an edition of which, with introduction, critical opinions, and notes, has been issued in Maynard's English Classic Series. This is a modernization of Chaucer's "Knight's Tale," which Dryden has made practically a new poem. But Chaucer took this story from Boccaccio, who in his turn took it from Statius, a poet of the first century. Dryden's version of the story is well worth study, as he is a master of metrical composition. (Maynard, Merrill & Co., New York.)

A condensed edition of Cooper's story, "The Water Witch," is published in the Standard Literature Series. The type is clear, and of good size, and is accompanied by a map locating the events pictured, a historical sketch, and a biographical note. It is valuable for school use. (University Publishing Co., New York. Price, twenty cents.)

The "Cyrop  dia," of Xenophon, has been abridged for the use of schools by C. W. Gleason, of the Roxbury Latin school. It gives an elaborate scheme for education and government, and the story of the good and wise king (Cyrus), whose bravery, prudence, and high sense of justice brought together many strong nations into one vast empire. These give it greater intrinsic interest to the general student than the "Anabasis," while its subjects make it a most valuable supplement to that renowned work. In preparing the book, the "Cyrop  dia" has been shortened nearly one-half by the omission of passages of minor interest and importance. The original division into books has been disregarded, and the text divided according to the subject-matter into seven chapters. The book is made serviceable for the student by copious notes and a complete working vocabulary. (American Book Co., New York. \$1.25.)

The Rev. Josiah Strong, the author of "The Twentieth Century City," is a vigorous writer, who places before the reader the conditions that have been brought about by the development of cities. He discusses the danger arising from the vast movement of population toward the cities, and the growth of their preponderating influence in the nation, points out the principles which may be applied successfully to the solution of the great problems of modern society, and makes a ringing appeal for action. Dr. Strong's patriotic words should sink deep in every heart. (The Baker & Taylor Co., New York. Cloth, 50 cents.)

In the Eclectic English Classics is a number of small books bound in boards containing the best works of the best authors, prefaced by scholarly introductions. Among the latest of these are the following: "Selections from the Poems of William Wordsworth," and "Selections from the Poems of Robert Burns," edited by W. H. Venable, LL.D.; "Palamon and Arcite," by John Dryden; "The Rape of the Lock and an Essay on Man," and "Selections from the Poems of Thomas Gray," edited by A. M. Van Dyke, M.A., of the Cincinnati high school. These books are widely used in schools for supplementary reading. (American Book Co., New York.)

No class of books are more in demand than those containing pieces to speak. Among the best of this class are the Denison series of "Scrap-Book Recitations," edited by H. M. Soper. No. 12 of this series contains some selections that have won prizes in Diamond Medal Contests, others that have proven very popular and successful with large and critical audiences. In addition, several selections of a high character were written especially for this book. The portions taken from Shakespeare's plays will please those who wish something of a classical character. (T. S. Denison, Chicago. 25 cents.)

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THE SCHOOL JOURNAL, established in 1870, was the first weekly educational paper published in the United States. During the year it published twelve school board numbers, fully illustrated, of from forty-four to sixty pages each, with cover, a summer number (eighty-eight pages) in June, a private school number in September, a Christmas number in November, and four traveling numbers in May and June. It has subscribers in every state and in nearly all foreign countries.

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Literary Notes.

No. 124 of the Riverside Literature Series is announced for immediate publication. It will be entitled "Baby Bell, the Little Violinist, and Other Verse and Prose," by Thomas Bailey Aldrich. Besides the poems and sketches mentioned above, the book will include "Friar Jerome's Beautiful Book," the "Ode on the Unveiling of the Shaw Memorial on Boston Common," and other well-known poems; also several original sketches.

The Prang Educational Co. lately issued a "Manual of Suggestions in Form, Drawing, and Color, for the Public Schools of the State of New York," by Eliza A. Sargent, New York. This book is intended to meet the needs of the supervisor of drawing and the grade teacher in the preparation of pupils for Regents' examinations; it is also designed to help teachers

in preparing for uniform examinations in drawing. It takes up the work in drawing as laid down in the Regents' syllabus, and in drawing for teachers' institutes issued by the department of public instruction with clearness and definiteness, illustrating each point and giving additional explanatory notes. Suggested courses of study are given which will prove helpful in planning the work of the preparation of students to meet the state examinations.

"Harper's Bazar," dated April 9, contains an Easter story by Sarah Barnwell Elliott, entitled "Miss Ann's Victory;" an illustrated article on "Women Miniature Painters at the Exhibition of the Society of American Artists;" an instalment of William Black's serial story entitled "Wild Eelin;" the usual departments—"New York Fashions," "Club Women and Club Work," and "Answers to Correspondents," and a Paris letter from Miss Katherine De Forrest, on "Spanish Women, the Queen Regent of Spain, and the Queen of Servia." (Harper & Brothers, New York.)

The author of the very strong paper on the public finances of Spain, recently published in "Harper's Weekly," contributes to the number of the "Weekly" dated April 9, a not less authoritative and timely article on "The Foreign Commerce of Cuba." Other important features of the number are: Harold Martin's description of the Reconcentrados; "Busy Scenes at Arsenals," illustrated with photographs of the United States arsenal at Watervliet, New York, taken especially for Harper's Weekly by Albion W. Floyd, through the courtesy of the secretary of war; full-page illustrations of Spain's torpedo flotilla *en route* to Puerto Rico, the Flying Squadron at Hampton Roads, and the scene in the senate when the Maine report was read. (Harper & Brothers, New York.)

The American Book Co. has issued a "Graded Work in Arithmetic," by S. W. Baird. It is planned to meet the growing demand for a series of arithmetics arranged in parts for each grade, and is especially adapted to the so-called "Spiral System" of teaching the subject. The same publishers have also issued the "American Comprehensive Arithmetic," by M. A. Bailey, A.M., professor of mathematics in the Kansas State normal school, which is designed to meet the requirements of schools for a "one-book" or complete arithmetic.

A new edition of Cæsar's "Gallic War" issued by Ginn & Co. keeps prominently in view the needs of the beginner, on the ground that a large majority of those who read Cæsar take it up immediately after finishing their first lessons. It is believed that all this class of students' needs have been fully met in this edition.

"Seed-Travellers," by Clarence Moores Weed, consists of a series of simple discussions of the more important methods by which seeds are dispersed. The subject as a whole is treated in a natural and logical way, the first part dealing with the "Wind as a Seed Distributer," the second with "Seed Dissemination by Birds," and the third, with "Seed Dispersal by Spines and Hooks." The familiar plants of the northern states have been chosen for these object lessons, and the aim of the writer has been to lead the children who read these essays to fuller observation of the significance of the simplest facts of nature. (Ginn & Company, publishers.)

D. C. Heath & Co., Boston, have issued "Advanced French Selections for Sight Translation," compiled by Thérèse F. Colin, teacher of French in Miss Baldwin's school, Bryn Mawr, Pa. The wide usefulness of Bruce's "Selections for Sight Translation" has elicited a demand for similar selections for more advanced classes. It consists of forty-four exercises, at first twenty lines long, and gradually increasing in length, selected from

the works of modern and rather difficult authors and will furnish an excellent written or oral test of the student's ability to read standard modern French.

Spain's naval strength is the subject of a large drawing in "Harper's Weekly" for April 16—an illustration of uncommon interest, accompanying an article on the same subject. The information contained in this article is compiled mainly from a "List of the Battle-ships, Cruisers, and Torpedo-boats in the Spanish Navy," prepared in the military information division of the adjutant-general's office at Washington.

In the April 16 number of *The Journal* the price of single numbers of the Standard Literature Series was given as twelve cents. The University Publishing Co., the publishers, inform us that it is twelve and a half cents; those who remit for single copies send thirteen cents.

One of the most noticeable books of the times is "Our Country in War and Our Relations With Foreign Nations," by Murat Halstead, the great war correspondent and editor, published by the National Educational Union, Chicago. It is a graphic review of our army, navy, and coast defences, our relations with Spain, Cuba, and all foreign nations. It compares Spain and the United States, describes the Spanish army, navy, and coast defences, and tells of their strength and weakness. The author carefully analyzes our relations with all the nations of the earth, and their probable action in our fight with Spain. The history of Cuba is told in a vivid and interesting way. Perhaps no living man could write a book like this so well as Murat Halstead.

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American Machines Surprised Him.

A French officer of engineers gave the following account recently of what he had seen in American factories: "I have been in America six months, and have visited the mines and manufacturing establishments in the east, west, north, and south. I have seen the most gigantic engineering operations in the world, but I shall report to my government that the biggest things in America are the little things. The French people are experts in domestic economy, and live comfortably by saving what your average families throw away. But Americans are, on the other hand, experts in industrial economy. You make money by saving wastage in business, and you lose some of it by wastage in your domestic economy. The attention paid to small details in your big works is amazing to me. I have visited some establishments where I believe the profits are not made in the manufacture proper, but in the saving of materials and labor by close attention to details that are with us unconsidered trifles. For example, I saw in your shops just now a little grindstone in operation automatically sharpening lathe and planer tools. The machine cost, probably, as much as 100 of our ordinary grindstones cost, but I see that it automatically grinds all the tools for 300 high-priced mechanics, and it only works a few hours each day. The skilled mechanics in our country frequently stop their regular work to grind their own tools, and then do it imperfectly. Your tools are all accurately ground to the best shape by the machine, so that they do more and better work on this account in a given time. I believe that that machine has brains—the brains of the inventor—and it has no doubt revolutionized work of this kind in American machine shops."

Looking for Two Persons.

We are advised that the Brown Lewis Cycle Co., Chicago, one of the largest bicycle houses of America are carefully looking for two persons, first, the party who ever bought a wheel from them who has any fault to find, and second, the person who wants a first-class wheel at the right price. They are the originators of the plan of shipping bicycles anywhere in the United States subject to approval. They are perfectly reliable and carry the most complete line in the world at remarkably low prices. It will be seen by their announcement in another column that satisfaction is guaranteed in all purchases.

Properties of the Lime.

Most people know the merits of lime juice as a thirst-quencher, but few are aware of the origin and nature of the delicious fruit from which it is obtained. The lime is a product of the West Indies, where it is much esteemed for its delightful flavor, and its cooling and refreshing properties. It is of the same species as the lemon, but its acidity is much more pronounced and agreeable, whilst its value as a purifier of the blood is considered to be much superior by the most eminent medical authorities. The lime tree, in common with that of the orange and lemon, presents the singular appearance of bearing its fruit in every stage of ripening, amidst a luxuriant display of exquisitely perfumed blossoms.

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"I was a pale, puny, sickly woman, weighing less than 90 pounds. I was never well. I had female troubles and a bad throat trouble. I came across an advertisement of Hood's Sarsaparilla and had faith in the medicine at once. I began taking it and soon felt better. I kept on until I was cured. I now weigh 103 pounds, and never have any sickness. Hood's Sarsaparilla will not cure. My blood is pure, complexion good and face free from eruptions." MRS. LUNA FARNUM, Box 116, Hillsgrove, Rhode Island.

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A Tree of Prehistoric Times.

An extraordinary discovery, and one which is just now exciting considerable interest in antiquarian circles has been made at Stockport, England. During the excavations in the construction of sewerage works for the town some workmen came across what has since proved to be a massive oak tree, with two immense branches. Professor Boyd Dawkins, the well-known antiquary, is of opinion that the tree is one of the giants of prehistoric times, and he says that the tree is certainly 10,000 years old.

Antikamnia.

The name itself suggests what it is, and what its remedial characteristics are: Anti (*Greek*), opposed to; Kamnos (*Greek*), pain—ergo a remedy to relieve pain and suffering. For headaches of all descriptions; nervous disturbance from excessive brain work by scholars, teachers and professional men; the neuralgias resulting from excesses in eating or drinking; the acute pains suffered by women at time of period; the muscular aching, the general malaise, frontal headaches and sneezing incident to severe colds or grippe; and in fact all conditions in which pain is prominent, antikamnia is now universally prescribed. Antikamnia tablets bearing the monogram A K are kept by all druggists, two tablets, crushed, being the adult dose. A dozen five grain tablets, kept about the house, will always be welcomed in time of pain.

The Residence of Napoleon.

M. Osiris, who has bought the historic chateau of Malmaison, in order to save it from ruin, has entrusted to M. Daumet the task of overseeing its repair and (to a certain) restoration. The personal apartments of Napoleon are to be brought back to their original condition—his library, his private room, and Josephine's bedroom, dressing-room, and bath-room. The first floor, which is in a ruinous state, is to be rebuilt and transformed into a series of galleries in which will be placed all the souvenirs, artistic objects, furniture, bronzes and medals, which are connected with the career and the reign of Napoleon.

Convicts as Church Builders.

The beautiful garrison church of St. Peter's on Portland island (Eng.) is convict work throughout, with the exception only of the colored mosaics in the reredos, which were inserted by an Italian artist. The church is, of course of Portland stone, the same material of which St. Paul's cathedral, the law courts, the monument, Westminster bridge and the banqueting room at Whitehall have been built. St. Peter's is situated just outside the prison domains, and is for the use of the line regiment stationed at Verne citadel, the highest point on the island.

The interest attaching to such a building is heightened by the circumstances that the verger—an ex-warder of Portland prison—can tell you whose work is represented in particular parts. The border around the porch and the mosaic pavement of the sanctuary are the delicate handwork of Constance Kent, the lady of gentle birth who murdered her step-brother, and was induced to confess her crime by a Brighton clergyman. The stone pulpit, the body of which is in one piece, was erected by Irish Fenians. The font at the door and the lectern in the center, were chiseled by young Whitechapel thieves, who proved to be such exceptionally skillful artisans that it was a pity they ever took to thieving.

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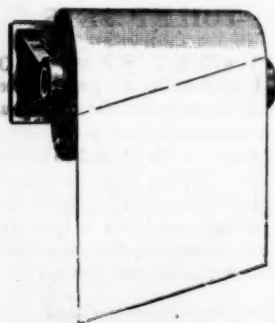
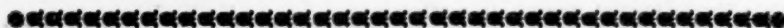
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